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ABSTRACT

The following papers are collected here: (1) "Bilingual Program Outcomes" by Wayne Holtzman, Jr.; (2) "Implementation of Bilingual Programs" by Domingo Dominguez; (3) "Language Arts in Bilingual Education" by Betty Mace-Matluck; (4) "Introducing Culture in the Classroom" by Margarita Rivas; (5) "Unlearning Indian Stereotypes" by Wathene Young; and (6) "Vietnamese Children in U.S. Classrooms" by Bich-Chi Vu Thuong Van. (JB)

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CONFERENCE PROCEEDINGS

R&D SPEAKS:

BILINGUAL/MULTICULTURAL EDUCATION

November 12-13, 1979

U S DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH, EDUCATION & WELFARE
NATIONAL INSTITUTE OF EDUCATION

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Austin, Texas
Southwest Educational Development Laboratory
January 1980

FOREWORD

The SEDL Regional Exchange (SEDL/RX) Project provides information and technical assistance services to educators in six states: Arkansas, Louisiana, Mississippi, New Mexico, Oklahoma, and Texas. It is one of seven Regional Exchanges in the nation-wide Research & Development Exchange (RDx), funded by the National Institute of Education, which lists as a major goal the dissemination of information about educational research and development (R&D). To assist in accomplishing this goal, the SEDL/RX staff designed and sponsored the R&D SPEAKS: BILINGUAL/MULTICULTURAL EDUCATION conference in Austin, Texas on November 12 and 13, 1979. In an effort to record and pass on to others some of the experience and knowledge that was shared during that day and a half meeting, this document, CONFERENCE PROCEEDINGS for R&D SPEAKS: BILINGUAL/MULTICULTURAL EDUCATION was developed.

This is the fourth of a series of R&D SPEAKS conferences on topics relevant to state needs. Three more R&D SPEAKS will be sponsored by the SEDL/RX during 1980. These conferences will provide opportunities for sharing, communication, and growth between researchers, clients, and users of the knowledge and products of educational research and development.

James H. Perry
Executive Director
January 1980

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

It is difficult to convey accurately the amount of work, cooperation, and commitment expended in planning and conducting this conference. A word of thanks must first go from the SEDL Regional Exchange (SEDL/RX) to the educators from across the six states who communicated ideas and suggestions for the conference agenda.

Three SEDL projects made major contributions to the conference, a testimony to the advantages of intralaboratory cooperation and to the resources found at SEDL. Members of the Bilingual and International Division (BIE), Dr. Domingo Dominguez, Dr. Betty Mace-Matluck, and Mr. Wayne Holtzman, Jr., developed the three synthesis papers on issues in bilingual education and presented the papers at the conference. The SEDL Follow Through Program and the Basic Skills Learning Centers Project aided in the first important steps of these synthesis papers and later stepped in on very short notice to help the SEDL/RX with details of conference planning. A very special thanks is due them--no one could ask for more unselfish, supportive working partners.

Our appreciation goes out as well to the multicultural presenters at the conference: Margarita Rivas of SEDL's Follow Through Program, Wathene Young and Bích-Chi Vũ Thường Văn.

Finally, thanks to Sharon Adams, Nancy Baker Jones, and Karen Olsen who worked on the conference and helped prepare the CONFERENCE PROCEEDINGS. Martha Hartzog was responsible for the design of the format which makes the PROCEEDINGS so attractive and for assembling and editing the whole. Teri Aleman accomplished the demanding task of translating the format design to the completed document you see here.

Preston C. Kronkosky
Project Director

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I. INTRODUCTION

I. INTRODUCTION

R&D SPEAKS: BILINGUAL/MULTICULTURAL EDUCATION was a conference held at Southwest Educational Development Laboratory (SEDL) in Austin, Texas on November 12-13, 1979. The conference was sponsored by the SEDL Regional Exchange (SEDL/RX), a dissemination project funded by the National Institute of Education (NIE). Regional Exchanges disseminate information about educational research and development outcomes to practitioners, link practitioners with needed resources, and communicate information about practitioner needs and activities to those engaged in educational research and development. The SEDL/RX serves the six state education agencies in Arkansas, Louisiana, Mississippi, New Mexico, Oklahoma, and Texas.

R&D SPEAKS: BILINGUAL/MULTICULTURAL EDUCATION is the fourth in a series of R&D SPEAKS conferences, an innovation of the SEDL/RX. Like the other R&D SPEAKS, this conference was designed to provide an opportunity for educational researchers and practitioners to share ideas, experiences, and information. Developing the conference agenda involved the SEDL/RX planners in a variety of needs sensing, matching, and collaborative tasks. The initial subject of the conference was to be current research in bilingual education. However, as prospective conference participants were contacted and topics sought to match their needs, it was quickly determined that the conference should also address multicultural education. As planning progressed, the breadth of the topic became apparent, and the increasing number of possible presentation topics could have filled a week-long agenda. Unfortunately, since conference time was limited to one-and-a-half days, some interesting possibilities had to be eliminated.

In selecting conference presenters, the SEDL/RX was fortunate in being able to tap the resources of SEDL, which over the past 12 years has been a leader in bilingual/multicultural education, developing curricula for bilingual students, providing technical assistance to schools and conducting research in the field. SEDL's Division of Bilingual

and International Education (BIE) and SEDL's Follow Through Program, housed in the Division of Field Services and Dissemination, agreed to be major presenters at the conference.

The staff of SEDL's Bilingual and International Education division is currently examining several research issues in bilingual education: cognitive styles of language minority children, elements of effective staff development in bilingual schooling, and teaching reading to bilingual children. For the conference, the BIE staff was asked to develop three research-based synthesis papers. Domingo Dominguez, BIE's division director, prepared "Implementation of Bilingual Programs." BIE staff member Betty Mace-Matluck's topic was "Language Arts in Bilingual Education," and Wayne Holtzman, Jr., chose "Bilingual Program Outcomes." The authors produced document drafts over a several month period and presented the information they contained during the morning session of the conference. Final versions of the three papers, as well as an explanation of the rather lengthy process used to identity topics of interest to bilingual education practitioners, follows in the second section of this report.

Three topics were identified in the multicultural area: ways to incorporate culture in the classroom, the concerns of Native American students, and teaching Indo Chinese children. For these presentations, the Regional Exchange turned to SEDL's Follow Through Program, as well as to outside presenters. The SEDL Follow Through Model has an 11-year history of field service to teachers in bilingual classrooms. It is part of the National Follow Through effort funded by the U.S. Office of Education and bases its activities on a bilingual education model utilizing SEDL's research-based bilingual curricular materials. A major part of program activities takes place during in-service sessions developed and conducted by the Follow Through staff. Margarita Rivas, a senior trainer on the Follow Through staff, presented an afternoon session titled, "Incorporating Culture in the Classroom." Two specialists from outside SEDL were contacted for the remaining two presentations on multicultural topics, which took place on the next day: Wathene Young, director of the EPIC program at Northeastern State University, Tahlequah, Oklahoma presented

"Unlearning Indian Stereotypes," and Bích-Chi Vũ-Thuởng Văn, an English-as-a-Second-Language Instructor at Austin Community College, presented the concluding session, "Vietnamese Children in U.S. Classrooms." Short biographical sketches of the presenters, along with their presentations, comprise the third section of this report.

Fifteen participants attended the conference. All six states were represented and participants spanned SEA, LEA, and IEA levels. The agenda for the conference is reproduced below. The CONFERENCE PROCEEDINGS is divided into three sections: "Issues in Bilingual Education"-- the three papers which provide information to practitioners about research, proceeded by an introduction; "Issues in Multicultural Education"-- an account of the three field-based presentations; and "Conference Evaluation"-- preliminary evaluation results based on questionnaires completed by participants. An Appendix includes a listing of resource materials displayed during the conference.

AGENDA

"R&D SPEAKS IN BILINGUAL/MULTICULTURAL EDUCATION"

November 12-13, 1979
5th Floor Conference Room

Monday, November 12, 1979

8:00-8:30am	Coffee & Donuts
8:30-8:45	Welcome & Introductions
8:45-9:45	Presentation of selected issues in Bilingual Education. Dr. Domingo Dominguez, Dr. Betty J. Matlock, Mr. Wayne Holtzman, Jr., staff members of the SEDL Bilingual and International Education Division will present a synopsis of current development in several bilingual education issues: • Research on outcomes of bilingual programs; • Implementation research as it relates to bilingual education; • Current research in the reading and language arts domains of bilingual education. The staff members will discuss their own work as well as review some on-going activities of other researchers.
9:45-10:00	BREAK
10:00-11:30	Continuation of first session
11:30-12:00	"Evidence of the Effectiveness of a Bilingual Early Elementary Program" Dr. Preston C. Kronkosky, Director of the SEDL Follow Through Program
12:00-1:30pm	LUNCH
1:30-4:30	Culture in the Classroom. What are some elements that should be remembered when including culture in the curriculum? Ms. Maggie Rivas, and Carol de la Torre, SEDL teacher trainers and field agents, will present some basic concepts that should be included in a culturally relevant classroom as well as some examples of specific activities and materials developed by several schools throughout the country.

Tuesday, November 13, 1979

8:00-8:30am	Coffee & Donuts
8:30-10:00	Unlearning Indian Stereotypes Presentation by Wathene Young, Cherokee Delaware, from North Eastern State University in Tahlequah, Oklahoma, on issues useful for teachers of American Indian children.
10:00-10:15	BREAK
10:15-11:30	Viet Namese Children in U.S. Classrooms. Presentation by Bich-Chi Vu-Thuong Van, editor of Homeland, a Viet Namese/English magazine, Austin, on some of the problems and misconceptions that face Vietnamese parents, children, and the teachers of these children.
11:30-12:00	Evaluation & Closing Remarks

Southwest Educational Development Laboratory
211 East Seventh Street
Austin, Texas 78701

II. ISSUES IN BILINGUAL EDUCATION

INTRODUCTION

The following three papers were developed by members of SEDL's Bilingual and International Education (BIE) division for R&D SPEAKS IN BILINGUAL/MULTICULTURAL EDUCATION, a conference sponsored by the SEDL/RX and held on November 12-13, 1979. The three papers provide a review of research findings in selected topics pertaining to bilingual education and are addressed to those educators--teachers, coordinators, project directors--who are interested in such research but do not have the time or resources to stay abreast of the continuing activities taking place in universities, laboratories, research centers, private companies and school districts throughout the educational world.

The three papers are titled: "Language Arts in Bilingual Education: A Synthesis of Current Research in Oral Language and Reading," "Bilingual Program Outcomes," and "Implementation of Bilingual Programs." The topics were chosen as the result of a needs assessment conducted by the SEDL/RX which attempted to identify topics or questions of current interest and relevance to bilingual educators. The assessment was modeled after similar activities of another project, the R&D Interpretation Service (RDIS) located at CEMREL, Inc., in St. Louis, Missouri. As noted in a recent RDIS publication, THE READING PORTFOLIO:

> The increasing concern with the relationship between theory and practice that has developed in recent decades has resulted in a number of visible changes. Perhaps the most notable is the large number of interpretive products, books that review the research literature and go on to draw implications for practice. The text for these products has usually been based on a review of the research literature. After asking what researchers have discovered, the authors identify the implications of these discoveries for practitioners.

When RDIS undertook a long-term project to produce a synthesis of research in reading instruction, the staff decided to restructure the usual review and interpretation sequence, which tends to reflect the researchers' views of the world. Instead, a series of discussions and question-and-answer sessions was initiated with groups of teachers, principals, and reading coordinators to try to determine topics of interest, regardless of current research activities. Based on these needs-sensing sessions, a list of questions emerged, and the RDIS staff then turned to the research literature to determine if answers to some of the questions could be found.

A similar process was undertaken by the SEDL/RX for research issues in bilingual education. Two SEDL projects, the Follow Through Program and the Basic Skills Learning Centers Project, both of which have extensive experience in bilingual education, recommended the names of practitioners across the United States who were involved in bilingual education and who would be interested in responding to a short questionnaire. The forty-eight teachers, principals, and site coordinators suggested were located in seven states: Arizona, California, Colorado, Louisiana, New Mexico, Pennsylvania, and Texas. Each person was mailed an open-ended questionnaire which requested a response to one inquiry:

> *PLEASE DESCRIBE THE PROBLEMS OR QUESTIONS CONCERNING BILINGUAL EDUCATION WHICH YOU WOULD LIKE TO SEE RESEARCHERS ADDRESS.*

The question elicited a very high response rate: forty questionnaires were returned to SEDL. Predictably, a wide range of responses was generated by such a broad question. Many of the 46 questions which surfaced were asked by more than one respondant. A few were asked by as many as five different respondents. Such "popular" questions received special attention when staff from the SEDL/RX and the Bilingual and International Division started examining the information. The 46 questions were distilled into several larger, more general issues from which the three paper topics were finally selected. As would be expected, all 46 questions could not easily be delegated to a general content area, and in some instances, the

specificity provided by many of the practitioners was lost in the effort to generalize. Finally, three topics were identified as responding to the main concerns in the questions.

After the topic identification, three members of the Bilingual and International Education Division, Dr. Domingo Dominguez, Dr. Betty Mace-Matluck, and Mr. Wayne Holtzman, Jr., prepared the papers which follow. The papers included information which the authors have extracted from a variety of sources. In an effort to present synthesis documents, the current literature was examined to determine issues and conflicting viewpoints. Reading lists and extensive bibliographies accompany the papers to allow readers further examination of details or alternate views. Although the author's personal viewpoint is a part of each paper, readers will find that the information contained goes far beyond personal opinion.

Dr. Domingo Dominguez, the director of SEDL's Bilingual and International Division, has been involved in bilingual education since 1961. He has taught at the elementary, junior high, high school and college levels. In addition, he has conducted field research and managed research projects, such as one which studied cognitive styles of language minority children. Dominguez has his Ph.D. from the University of New Mexico in Curriculum and Instruction.

Dr. Betty Mace-Matluck, senior researcher for the division, received her Ph.D. from The University of Texas at Austin. She has had extensive experience in language research, as well as in public school teaching, supervision, administration and teacher training. Her background includes the management of a large field-based research project jointly sponsored by the Seattle Public Schools and the Center for Applied Linguistics. Currently she is principal investigator for a study on the teaching of reading to bilingual children.

Mr. Wayne Holtzman, Jr., trainer for the division, is involved in a project to improve the capability of project directors to manage and implement Title VII Bilingual Education Programs in the Southwest. He is currently a doctoral candidate in Educational Psychology at The University of Texas at Austin.

It should be repeated that the primary purpose of the papers is to provide a general overview of current research for the practitioner in bilingual education. No attempt has been made to address the educational researcher. Methodological background, statistical details and technical language have been eliminated in order to produce short, readable papers for general educators. In an additional attempt to incorporate practitioner's comments, draft copies of the papers were sent to the original 48 questionnaire respondents, with a request for their suggestions and general impressions. Eight of the draft copies were returned and suggestions and feedback were incorporated. At the end of the conference, copies of the papers were distributed along with evaluation forms which asked about the usefulness of the papers. None of these has been returned by mail to-date.

The three papers will be issued separately and offered to interested educators in the six-state region served by the SEDL Regional Exchange (SEDL/RX). The development of products such as these papers, which attempt to link the world of research with the world of the practitioner, is a major activity of the SEDL/RX. It is hoped that such intermediary products will help fulfill one of the major goals of the SEDL/RX, which is to support the dissemination of research outcomes by providing information, technical assistance and/or training.

BILINGUAL PROGRAM OUTCOMES

BY

WAYNE HOLTZMAN, JR.

WAYNE HOLTZMAN, JR.

BILINGUAL PROGRAM OUTCOMES

Even though the current impetus for bilingual education is over ten years old, bilingual education remains an innovative and controversial issue. The basic premises of bilingual education are strongly defended by its proponents and hotly contested by its opponents. A variety of bilingual programs throughout the United States receive substantial money from numerous federal, state and local sources. It is no wonder, then, that the general public views with considerable interest the question of bilingual program outcomes. With the increasing emphasis upon accountability and reduced spending for federal programs, people want to determine, once and for all, if bilingual education really works.

DOES BILINGUAL EDUCATION REALLY WORK?

Unfortunately, it is impossible to respond to this question without first considering a variety of factors relating to the particular bilingual program, its implementation and its context. A number of essential questions must be asked:

- *What type of bilingual program is being examined?*
- *Is it a transitional program designed to ease a child's introduction to English?*
- *Is it a maintenance program designed to maintain and build on skills in the native language while introducing and strengthening skills in English?*
- *Who are the teachers in the program and what are their qualifications?*
- *Who are the students and what is their language history?*
- *What is the dominant language of the community?*
- *Does the community support the program?*
- *How are the program's instructional sequences defined?*
- *Does the program have adequate financial resources?*

WELL-PLANNED AND WELL-MANAGED BILINGUAL PROGRAMS CAN HELP CHILDREN'S ACADEMIC ACHIEVEMENT AND SELF-CONCEPT.

Obviously, each bilingual program is different and should be evaluated within its unique context. In many cases, the evaluation designs of bilingual programs do not yield enough appropriate information for conclusions to be drawn even when the context is known. Sometimes this is the fault of evaluators who fail to plan an adequate design. More commonly there are other factors involved that make it extremely difficult to evaluate bilingual programs. For example, it may not be feasible or appropriate to have one group of children participate in a bilingual program while another group is denied the program in order to serve as a comparison. Another problem for evaluators is that the population mobility often means there are not enough students available for long-range study. While it is difficult to measure the effects of bilingual education on students, we can conclude that well-planned and well-managed bilingual programs can be very beneficial for children who participate. The following summarizes documented results which have led to this conclusion.

ACADEMIC ACHIEVEMENT--THE NEGATIVE SIDE

Before discussing evidence of positive results of bilingual programs, it is important to mention several studies which show negative results. The largest of these studies was conducted by the American Institute for Research (AIR) in the mid-1970's. Results from a substantial number of sites suggested to AIR that Title VII bilingual programs were having little or no effect on students. Overall, Title VII students in Grades 2 through 6 performed worse in English language arts than the non-Title VII students, and both groups performed at about the same level in mathematics. Unfortunately, Spanish reading could not be evaluated for lack of appropriate standardized criteria.

While the findings of the AIR study should be taken seriously, its credibility has been questioned by other researchers. In the first place, since less than six months was allotted at most sites between the two testing periods, students may not have had enough instructional time for program effectiveness to be demonstrated. Secondly, in classifying students according to language, teacher judgement was the main criterion used, yet half of the teachers doing the classfication were monolingual speakers of English. (For a more complete discussion of other criticisms, see Cardenas, 1977 in the Selected Readings section attached.)

A second study that also has received much attention was superior to the AIR study from a methodological standpoint. This study, presented in a 1976 article by Andrew Cohen and Luis Laosa, reported a combination of positive and negative results concerning the bilingual program being used in Redwood City, California. On the negative side, the study found that children speaking both Spanish and English who were enrolled in the bilingual program showed a lower level of English reading achievement than a comparison group which did not participate. In addition, the comparison group actually performed better in Spanish reading than did one of the three bilingual classes! This was quite unexpected, since the comparison group did not receive instruction in Spanish. At least one investigator has suggested the possibility that the bilingual children enrolled in the program may have been at a disadvantage because they were introduced to Spanish and English reading at the same time, without first establishing a solid foundation in one language which could then be transferred to the second language. (Fifty-two percent of Title VII programs in 1969-70 used this instructional approach to reading.)

ACADEMIC ACHIEVEMENT--THE POSITIVE SIDE

WITHOUT THE PROGRAMS, STUDENTS MIGHT PERFORM WORSE THAN THEIR ENGLISH-SPEAKING PEERS.

Fortunately, several recent reviews of empirical studies and evaluation reports have concluded that the potential benefits

of bilingual programs are real and tangible. In a comprehensive review by Zappert and Cruz (1977) of well-designed studies, 58 percent of the findings were positive, 41 percent were neutral, and only 1 percent was negative. The results can be viewed even more positively if one considers that without the bilingual education programs, these students might actually perform worse than their English-speaking peers. Zappert and Cruz fall short of giving bilingual education their full endorsement, but they do conclude that the evidence thus far suggests that bilingual education programs tend to improve school attendance and have a neutral or positive effect on the development of oral language, reading and writing abilities, mathematics, and social studies.

IT IS BETTER TO LOOK AT LANGUAGE OUTCOMES OVER A PERIOD OF SEVERAL YEARS THAN TO EXPECT IMMEDIATE RESULTS.

In 1978 another review was published by the National Clearinghouse for Bilingual Education under the authorship of Rudolph Troike. This is a well-written article which should be read by everyone concerned with the issues of academic outcomes for bilingual students. It is especially useful in presenting short descriptions of bilingual programs which claim success in boosting academic achievement. All the programs were carried out in the the United States and variously represent Spanish, French, Chinese and Navajo languages. Results from several programs imply that it is better to look at language outcomes over a period of several years than to expect immediate results from programs that have recently received their initial funding. Teachers know that children do not become fluent English speakers in a few months. Indeed, we believe that only a long-range evaluation design which studies program effects over a period of several years and views the program within its particular social, political and educational context can produce valid results.

An increasing number of long-range studies have been appearing in the literature recently. One of the most promising is an evaluation of the SEDL Follow Through Model, presented in the 1979-80 *Follow Through*

Proposal (submitted to the U.S. Office of Education in March 1979). The SEDL Follow Through Model is used in 191 classrooms in 19 schools from seven different school districts throughout the nation. The program evaluation, which is presented in the proposal, monitored student achievement from the fall of 1971 to the Spring of 1978. Test scores in reading, math, and basic language skills for Follow Through Bilingual Program students (K-3) were superior to those of students not in the Follow Through Program.

BILINGUAL EDUCATION HELPED DISADVANTAGED STUDENTS CLOSE THE GAP.

These results are quite impressive, but are even more so considering that Follow Through students were characteristically from socio-economically disadvantaged families. It is usually the case that such students score lower than their more advantaged peers. The superior test scores of these disadvantaged students indicate that bilingual exposure helped them close this gap.

A second longitudinal study worthy of note was carried out on the Nuevos Horizontes PIP Program in San Marcos, Texas, by the staff of the Bilingual and International Education Division of Southwest Educational Development Laboratory. Reading, language, and total battery scores on the Comprehensive Test of Basic Skills of students entering school with limited English were higher in 1979 than they had been during the previous two years, before the start of the bilingual program. In addition, kindergarten students in 1979 scored higher on the post-test of the Boehm Test of Basic Concepts than did students in previous years. This was true in spite of the fact that the 1979 students began the school year with slightly lower scores than had been obtained for students entering in 1977.

SINCE 1972, 4TH AND 5TH GRADE STUDENTS HAVE STEADILY INCREASED THEIR READING SCORES.

Two other recent long-range studies which should be mentioned concern the Rock Point, Arizona bilingual program for Navajos and the Spanish-English bilingual education program of Santa Fe, New Mexico.

In the Rock Point school, which has used a bilingual maintenance program since 1972, fourth and fifth grade students have steadily increased their reading scores, each year coming closer to the national norm for reading on the Stanford Achievement Test. When the bilingual program started in 1972, fourth grade students were scoring 1.3 years below the norm and fifth graders 1.6 years below it. By 1975, fourth and fifth graders' scores had climbed to .6 years and .5 years, respectively, below the norm. In 1976, the students' achievement scores in reading had approached the national SAT norm for their age group. In contrast, students from other Navajo schools not using a bilingual instructional program were scoring two years below these norms in 1975.

THE DIRECTOR HAD BEEN IN CHARGE OF THE PROGRAM FOR SIX YEARS AND THERE WAS VERY LITTLE TURNOVER IN STAFF.

The Santa Fe bilingual program was also evaluated quite positively during the years 1972-77. In fact, its evaluator suggests results contrary to the negative AIR study. Students enrolled continuously in the bilingual program for five years, beginning in the second grade, achieved the national norms for their age in reading by the end of the fifth grade. Their performance was even better in math: They were able to surpass the norms during fourth grade and maintained this advantage through the end of the sixth grade as well. One possible contributing fact to the success of this program is that the director had been in charge of the program for six years and there was very little turnover in staff. This may have freed the program operation from the internal stress which often plagues bilingual programs. (For more details of these two program evaluations, please see the reports listed at the conclusion of this article.)

CAN BILINGUAL EDUCATION IMPROVE THE SELF-CONCEPT?

While academic achievement is important, it should be remembered that this country's legal mandate for bilingual education was the

result in part of the concentrated efforts of individuals who believed that bilingual education programs had the potential of improving the self-concepts of children whose first language is not English. Most bilingual programs include affective education and the betterment of the student's self-concept as an important goal of the instructional component. Before proceeding, however, let us clarify exactly what we mean by self-concept.

MANY BILINGUAL PROGRAMS FAIL TO DIFFERENTIATE BETWEEN GLOBAL AND SPECIFIC SELF-CONCEPTS.

In general terms, self-concept represents one's identity, or sense of being, and how he or she feels about it. Researchers sometimes make a distinction between the global self-concept and the specific self-concept. The global self-concept represents an individual's perception of him- or herself across a variety of situations. A person with a fairly high global self-concept may feel self-satisfied in most--though not all--areas of life. The specific self-concept, however, is much more bound by the individuals' situation. One example of this type of self-concept is how a student views his or her performance in reading or math. A student may have a high specific self-concept in academic areas yet have a much lower self-concept in social areas. It is important to make a distinction between the two types of self-concepts since many bilingual programs do not differentiate between them. While a bilingual program may include as one of its goals a vague reference to student "self-concept," its real goal may be improved motivation in reading or development of a more positive view of the student's native culture.

The issue becomes more complicated if we look at the types of testing instruments used to measure self-concept. The child's specific self-concept as it relates to school is of particular interest to bilingual educators, yet they commonly use test instruments of questionable validity which yield scores that allegedly reflect global self-concept. Needless to say, because of this inconsistency, as well as the fact that no one has come up with an easy and objective way to measure self-concept, conclusions based upon outcomes in this area are tentative.

STUDENTS TEND TO IMPROVE THEIR SELF-CONCEPT SCORES OVER TIME.

Nevertheless, there are certain statements that can be made to summarize research in self-concept for bilingual students. Perhaps one of the most positive findings is that very few evaluations of bilingual programs have reported negative or damaging effects upon the self-concept of either bilingual children or their monolingual peers. More commonly, all students exposed to bilingual programs tend to improve their self-concept scores over time. This was found to be the case in one of the bilingual programs which the SEDL Bilingual and International Education Division helped evaluate. Over a two-year period during kindergarten and first grade, both limited and non-limited speakers of English in this bilingual program made substantial gains in scores on the *Primary Self-Concept Inventory* (a standardized assessment tool of student self-concept developed by members of the educational psychology department at New Mexico State University). The limited English speakers improved from a 1977-78 pre-test score at the 22nd percentile to a post-test 1978-79 score at the 55th percentile. The non-limited English speakers improved during the same period of time from an average score at the 50th percentile to a post-test score at the 69th percentile.

CLASSROOM TEACHERS ARE AN INVALUABLE RESOURCE.

In summary, although the relevance and validity of research in self-concept for bilingual students can be questioned, most studies do report findings which are more positive than negative. Classroom teachers could be an invaluable resource in this area. They can observe over time how each child changes in attitude toward him- or herself, other students, and motivation to learn.

SOME OTHER CONSIDERATIONS . . .

THE SUPPORT OF COMMUNITY MEMBERS IS IMPORTANT.

There are several additional points which should be mentioned when discussing bilingual program outcomes. One of these is the important link that exists between bilingual programs and the community. Although research is limited in this

area, it has been suggested that a bilingual education program has a better chance of succeeding if it has the support of community members. Similarly, an effective bilingual program may have a positive influence on the attitudes of community members toward bilingual education. Unfortunately, some programs are implemented without first establishing whether or not community members, particularly children's parents, have perceived a genuine need for the bilingual program.

A GAIN IN COGNITIVE BENEFITS IS BEING REPORTED.

Finally, recent research in bilingualism suggests that a number of cognitive benefits may be gained in the process of becoming bilingual. These benefits are in addition to the explicit goals of a particular program. Several studies have concluded that bilingual students are superior to monolinguals in concept formation, flexibility of thought which aids problem solving, certain aspects of creativity, and an awareness which helps focus on the meaning of language rather than on its form. There have been fascinating studies which suggest that the brain of a bilingual speaker functions differently from that of a monolingual speaker. If the above research findings can be reproduced in future studies, bilingual education programs would be performing a very important service to this country by helping children to become more bilingual.

A COMPLEX PHENOMENON

To summarize, bilingual education is a very complex phenomenon, and numerous factors determine whether or not a bilingual program is successful in any given situation. It now appears that the effects of bilingual programs on academic outcomes are best measured over a period of at least three years. Apparently it is unrealistic to expect quicker results. At this point research in bilingual education is still in its infancy, and conclusions regarding effectiveness should be stated with caution. However, two recent reviews of the literature suggest that

bilingual education programs, when planned carefully, can have a positive impact on oral language development, as well as on reading, writing, mathematics and social studies.

Whereas the documentation of academic outcomes has been of prime importance to educators, other types of outcomes are also important to consider. Results from most studies which have looked at the effects of bilingual education upon the self-concepts of children show a lack of negative psychological effects. On the contrary, some studies have shown that children exposed only minimally to a bilingual education program made substantial gains in self-concept. It is probable that effective bilingual programs can also have a positive effect upon the attitudes of the community members it serves. Finally, recent studies in the field of bilingualism have shown that bilingual children reap a variety of cognitive benefits, independent of academic achievement.

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Cardenas, Jose A. "Response I," Language, Ethnicity, and the Schools: Policy Alternatives for Bilingual-Bicultural Education, ed. Noel Epstein. Washington D.C.: The George Washington University Institute for Educational Leadership, 1977, 71-84.

Epstein's book is considered by many to have helped ignite the national controversy over bilingual education. In the chapter cited, Cardenas provides his own definition and rationale for bilingual education and describes various characteristics and types of programs that exist in the field. Ten examples of flaws in the AIR outcomes study are presented, and toward the end of the chapter, Cardenas raises a number of issues in which he strongly disagrees with Epstein. This chapter, as well as the whole book, should be carefully read by all bilingual education teachers. It is interesting to see how a bilingual Chicano educator's view (Cardenas) clashes with someone whose background is journalism (Epstein). Important points are brought out by both, with far-reaching political and educational implications.

Cohen, Andrew, and Luis M. Laosa. "Second language Instruction: Some Research Considerations," Journal of Curriculum Studies, 8(1976), 149-165.

The article discusses a variety of issues such as first and second language instruction and program outcomes in bilingual education. One of its main points is that the measurement of program outcomes is complex and involves an interaction of many factors, not all of which can be accounted for in any given study. The factors include parental involvement and attitudes; grouping of students with respect to language dominance; length of time the instructional treatment is in operation; types of specific instructional methods and techniques employed by teachers; characteristics of student participants; and the degree to which the child's native and/or second language is used for instructional purposes in the classroom. It is suggested that apparent contradictions in research findings actually may be due to differences among bilingual programs, or in factors which affect a given program. Towards the end of the article, two radically different bilingual programs are described. Teachers might wish to compare these two types of programs to determine how and why they are different.

Danoff, Malcolm N. Evaluations of the Impact of ESEA Title VII Spanish/English Bilingual Education Program: Overview of Study and Findings. Palo Alto, California: American Institute for Research in the Behavioral Sciences, 1978.

This document, representing the final report, summarizes in 32 pages information found in three previous volumes. The design of the study and a summary of findings are presented for Spanish/English bilingual projects which were in their fourth or fifth year of funding, as of Fall 1975. A wide range of topics is covered, such as characteristics of teachers and teacher aides, types of students who were participants in the projects, the effects of Title VII programs on attitudes and achievement, etc. Although the paper is somewhat technical, there are several reasons teachers should become familiar with its contents. The results reported have been cited by researchers as evidence against bilingual education and are quite controversial. More important, it is the most extensive study conducted to-date in the area of bilingual education. Rather than relying on secondary sources which are often biased, educators should read the paper and judge its own merits.

Troike, Rudolph C. Research Evidence for the Effectiveness of Bilingual Education. Rosslyn, Virginia: National Clearinghouse for Bilingual Education, 1978.

Teachers will find this paper to be a well written, concise synthesis of positive findings regarding bilingual program outcomes to-date. A word of caution is in order: because of the paper's concise nature teachers should also try to read some of the original studies and evaluation reports. Troike notes that since 1968, less than one-half of one percent of the monies allocated to bilingual education have been spent on research! Such lack of funds has slowed substantially the acquisition of knowledge concerning the effects of bilingual programs. Nonetheless, Troike describes the results of twelve bilingual programs which have reported positive outcomes.

Zappert, Laraine Z., and B. Roberto Cruz. Bilingual Education: An Appraisal of Empirical Research. Berkeley, California: Bay Area Bilingual Education League/Lau Center, 1977.

This short book presents, in a non-technical way, a synthesis of findings from research in bilingual education. Rigid (perhaps too rigid) criteria were used in accepting or rejecting evaluation reports and studies. If one of six weaknesses was detected, the study was rejected. Of 108 project evaluations, only three were accepted from a methodological standpoint. Of 76 research studies, only nine were deemed adequate in methodology. Of 66 findings reported, 38 were positive, 27 were neutral, and only one was negative. Some of the neutral findings were basically positive ones, since students in bilingual classes were not learning at a slower rate than students in monolingual classes. The book is well organized and easy to read. Results are presented in chart form, and a comprehensive bibliography is provided of all studies and evaluation reports which initially were considered for review. A weakness of this book is that a large number of studies and evaluation reports were not available for review at the time of publication. Nonetheless, it is a good reference for teachers.

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DOMINGO DOMINGUEZ

IMPLEMENTATION OF BILINGUAL EDUCATION PROGRAMS

INTRODUCTION

Bilingual education is an important and controversial educational innovation. Its advent has caused much debate and raised a great number of issues. Many of these are related to the implementation process.

VARIOUS FACTORS INFLUENCE IMPLEMENTATION.

There are several reasons why it is important to study the implementation of bilingual programs. The most obvious reason is that unless we can identify and describe explicitly the particular program that has been implemented, we will have no basis for assessing how well it works. Similarly, unless we can adequately assess bilingual programs, we have no basis for determining just how valid the concept of bilingual education is for limited-English-speaking children. Another reason why it is important to study implementation is to understand why certain programs succeed while others fail. It is believed by many educators that various factors influence the rate at which bilingual programs reach high levels of implementation, as well as determine the extent to which a particular program is implemented.

RESEARCH IN EDUCATIONAL INNOVATIONS HAS IMPLICATIONS FOR BILINGUAL EDUCATION.

Research on the implementation of educational innovations is extensive; however, research on the implementation of bilingual education is extremely limited. Nonetheless, research in educational innovations does have implications for bilingual education. The discussion which follows examines studies which have identified factors, both positive and negative, that influence the implementation process. The findings from this research may be useful to individuals responsible for implementing bilingual education programs.

RESEARCH FINDINGS

THE RAND STUDY

The Rand Corporation has completed a two-phase multi-year study of federally funded programs designed to introduce and spread innovative practices in public schools. The first phase focused on determining what kinds of strategies and conditions tended to promote changes in the schools and which did not. The second phase looked at the institutional and project factors which tended to sustain or deter implementation.

The programs studies in phase one were: ESEA Title III, Innovative Projects; ESEA Title VII, Bilingual Education Projects; Vocational Education Act, 1968 Amendments, Part D, Exemplary Programs; and the Right-to-Read Program. The most important findings across the projects were that: (1) districts that started projects based on educational concerns were more successful than those that began projects primarily because money was available; (2) projects that addressed high priority needs of the local school district were more likely to result in change than projects which were of lower priority but addressed federal concerns; (3) projects which involved local staff in the initiation and early planning for the project were more successful in the implementation; (4) the type of planning was more important than the amount, that is to say, "on-line" project planning throughout the implementation process was important; and (5) projects were more successful where "mutual adaptation" was prevalent (the project and the local school setting made coordinated changes during the implementation process).

Other factors which influenced implementation are listed below:

- *<u>Training</u>. The amount of training was correlated to project implementation. Equally important was the type of training. The most effective training used "how-to-do-it" workshops conducted by site personnel.*

- *Staff Meetings. Frequent and regular meetings provided staff with an opportunity to discuss project problems and possible solutions. The meetings improved morale and aided in implementation.*

- *Materials Development. The development of materials by local staff contributed to better understanding of project goals and offered project staff an opportunity to learn by doing.*

- *Incentives. Professional incentives were more effective in soliciting teacher cooperation and involvement than were extra pay and other material incentives.*

- *Staff Size and Experience. Success was more likely where project staff formed a sufficiently large group to provide mutual support and share ideas. Previous experience of project staff with innovation facilitated project implementation.*

- *Other Innovative Projects. The existence of other innovative efforts sometimes interfered with the implementation of bilingual education projects.*

- *Administrative Support and Access. Administrative support, technical assistance, and open communication played an important role in facilitating implementation.*

In summary, those projects which were well implemented were characterized by such attributes as (a) a strong training component, (b) practical "how-to-do-it" workshops, (c) local expertise and technical assistance, (d) frequent, regular staff meetings, and (e) local materials development.

Decisions on continuation were based, more often than not, on political reality and the districts' interest in maintaining the project. Project evaluation did not play an important role in local decisions to continue or terminate the project. In addition, the study found that (a) projects that attempted to replace existing practices were more likely to be continued than those which supplemented the existing curriculum, and (b) projects which emphasized staff training, as opposed to the introduction to new technologies, had more lasting effects on teaching practices.

THE HIGH DEGREE OF POLITICAL INVOLVEMENT MAKES IMPLEMENTATION DIFFICULT.

With reference to bilingual education, the most important findings of the Rand Study are found in *Federal Programs supporting Educational Change, Vol. VI: Implementing and Sustaining Title VII Bilingual Projects*. Essentially, the study discusses the reasons why bilingual educational programs have been difficult to implement. One reason reported was the high degree of political involvement by various groups and agencies. For example, consistent and organized pressures for bilingual education have emanated more from the national and regional levels than from the local constituency. This has caused much resistance at the local level. In addition, the multiple number of agencies providing direction in bilingual education has often confused school districts and thwarted implementation efforts. For example, the Office of Bilingual Education occasionally issues guidelines which differ from those of state education agencies.

"TRADITIONALISM" HAS ALSO BEEN A FACTOR.

A second reason was the "traditionalism" associated with implementation of bilingual programs at the classroom level. The study found few instances of innovative practices such as learning centers, open classrooms, or use of diagnostic-prescriptive methods in bilingual classrooms. Factors which contribute to this lack of innovation were: (1) the fact that many people do not view bilingual education as an innovation beyond the fact that it uses two languages and introduces multi-cultural curriculum elements; (2) in the initiation phase, the focus was more political than educational; (3) especially in the early years, bilingual program developers lacked experience in innovative curriculum design; and (4) some program developers felt that innovative approaches, like open classrooms, are inappropriate for target children.

SHORTAGES OF STAFF AND MATERIALS CAUSED IMPLEMENTATION PROBLEMS.

Shortages in staff, materials, and instructional models also contributed to the difficulty in implementing bilingual education. The shortage of staff was particularly noticed in the design phase. All of the projects visited by the Rand team lacked teachers who had been trained

in bilingual education. Many of the projects reported difficulty in locating commercially developed materials appropriate to their needs. And last, fully developed instructional models were not available to project implementors.

THE PROJECT DEVELOPMENTAL CONTINUITY EVALUATION STUDY (PDC)

The PDC Study, sponsored by the Office of Child Development (DHEW), is a multiple-year evaluation of a Head Start demonstration program which was aimed at providing greater educational and developmental continuity between children's Head Start and elementary school experience. Bilingual projects were among those studied.

The PDC looked at program implementation. Conclusions from the interim report of 1977, which may have significance for bilingual education, are listed below.

- *"No single factor or event was significant to 'make' or 'break' the project; only combinations of factors operated to influence implementation."*

- *"The single most powerful set of determinants of implementation during the first three years was the educational and community setting." For example, where existing programs or existing priorities were compatible with PDC, implementation was greatly facilitated.*

- *"The second most important set of detminants of implementation was the background, creativity and initiative of PDC staff." Aside from the setting, the efforts of the site coordinators and parent involvement specialists were cited as the reason for successful implementation. Effective coordinators were familiar with the workings of the school district, were astute politically, and could anticipate reactions of others to their own or staff members' actions and decisions.*

- *"The planning year was a critical factor in the implementation of PDC." Most implementors agreed that the planning year had given them an opportunity to develop products and strategies, and gave them a chance to clarify and promote project expectations.*

- *"When some form of planned sequencing of implementation was adopted, sites made more rapid progress in their areas of focus." While the planning year helped sites to implement, the preparation for implementing all facets of the project was not completed. Early efforts to implement everything at once (as the guidelines demanded), resulted more often than not in frustration.*

- *"Implementation proceeded most rapidly where administrative legitimacy for PDC staff had been established." Legitimacy was established and sustained when the building principal took an active role in planning, installing and maintaining the project. Support and commitment from other district administrators also enhanced the legitimacy of PDC staff.*

- *"Implementation proceeded most rapidly when a sense of 'ownership' of PDC had been established among staff at both Head Start and elementary school levels."*

BILINGUAL PROJECT INFORMATION PACKAGES (PIP)

From 1977 through 1979, the Southwest Educational Development Laboratory (SEDL), evaluated the effects of implementation of the Bilingual Project Information Packages at two sites in Texas. The focus of the evaluations included staff development, parental involvement, and instructional components. The SEDL evaluation indicated that (1) implementation was severely hampered by concurrent organizational changes, (2) multiple innovations operating in the same site tended to distract attention from the PIP effort, (3) project directors perceived an improvement in the implementation process when data on student progress were shared with teachers in a continuous and ongoing fashion, (4) teachers perceived themselves to be successful in their efforts when they knew and understood specific instructional objectives, and (5) implementation was facilitated when project directors were aware of the teachers' needs and provided technical assistance on a timely basis.

SUMMARY AND RECOMMENDATIONS

NO SINGLE DETERMINANT CAN "MAKE" OR "BREAK" A PROJECT.

The studies reviewed indicated that there is no single determinant which can "make" or "break" a project. Instead there are sets of determinants which influence the degree to which projects are implemented. For example, no single individual can be solely responsible for successful implementation. It is the combined efforts and support of the administrators, principal, coordinators, teachers, and others, which contribute to successful implementation. Implementation is enhanced when commitment and support are integrated with involvement in conceptualizing, planning, and implementing projects. Adequate resources such as staff, materials, and funds are essential to project implementation.

Program implementors should strive to develop strategies and conditions which facilitate implementation. Based on the findings discussed in this paper, the following recommendations are offered for consideration.

- *The implementation of bilingual education programs must be viewed as a process not an event. That is to say, implementation will not occur because it is mandated or desired; it must be carried out in a systematic and deliberate fashion in which all concerned are involved in conceptualizing, planning, and implementing. Once a bilingual education program has been installed in a district, well-designed procedures for monitoring and promoting its movement toward a high level of implementation must be put into operation. This is particularly important in that bilingual education programs are often hurriedly implemented in response to a noncompliance citation. Once in minimal compliance, developing the quality of the program must become a major focus.*

- *In order to enhance the prospect of implementation, implementors of bilingual projects must develop plans for implementation. Such plans may involve systematic and ongoing assessment of the degree of involvement of each member has reached in the developmental process related to implementation; the designing and carrying out of individualized inservice activities for staff members; and the development of a strong community support system.*

- *And finally, bilingual education implementors ought to utilize educational innovation theory, research, and technology in their implementation efforts. An important first step will involve analyzing and describing bilingual education within the framework of innovation theory. Research and technology that has emanated from inquiry into other educational innovations may well contribute to the solving of methodological problems in future research on the implementation process in bilingual education. This research and technology needs to be reviewed and analyzed in terms of its applicability to bilingual education.*

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This is an excellent document for readers who wish to get an overview of the total Rand study on educational change. In particular, it contains an informative discussion of findings across all the educational change programs studied by Rand.

Greenwood, P. W., Mann, D., & McLaughlin, M. W. Federal Programs Supporting Educational Change, Vol. III: The Process of Change. Prepared for the U.S. Office of Education, Department of Health, Education, and Welfare. Santa Monica, California: The Rand Corporation, April 1975.

This volume synthesizes the findings from 29 exploratory case studies of ESEA Title III, ESEA Title VII, Vocational Education, and the Right-to-Read Program. The focus of the discussion is on the process of change that characterizes innovations attempted by school districts using federal funds.

Smith, A. G., et al. A Process of Project Developmental, Interim Report VII, Volume 1: Findings from the PDC Implementation Study. Arlington, VA: Development Associates, Inc., August 1977.

This third year interim report, one of a series of documents on the evaluation of Project Developmental Continuity (PDC), presents findings from three major analyses of program implementation; measurement of the extent each program has implemented the basic PDC guidelines; a discussion of patterns of that implementation; and analysis of some facts and a discussion of events that have shaped implementation. The report contains very little information on bilingual education projects.

Sumner, G., & Zellman, G. Federal Programs Supporting Educational Change, Vol. VI: Implementing and Sustaining Title VII Bilingual Projects. Prepared for the U.S. Office of Education, Department of Health, Education, and Welfare. Santa Monica, CA: The Rand Corporation, January 1977.

This volume contains the most comprehensive discussion on the implementation of bilingual education projects to date. The study sheds light on the many problems/difficulties which school districts encounter in their attempts to implement bilingual education projects.

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LANGUAGE ARTS IN BILINGUAL EDUCATION:

A SYNTHESIS OF CURRENT RESEARCH IN ORAL LANGUAGE AND READING

BY

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LANGUAGE ARTS IN BILINGUAL EDUCATION:
A SYNTHESIS OF CURRENT RESEARCH IN ORAL LANGUAGE AND READING

LANGUAGE AND LEARNING

It has long been recognized that much of what is learned must be acquired through language. Similarly, the content of education must be taught through language, and thus the acquisition of language skills is essential for success in school, for continued learning, for future job opportunities, and for daily human interaction. It is not surprising, then, that research in language arts is extensive and fills volumes of books. Nor is it surprising, given the complexity of the phenomenon of language, that even today research on the language arts provides the educator with, at best, only a partial understanding of the language acquisition process and only tentative conclusions about the most effective procedures for teaching language skills to young children. Even less research is available on which to base sound bilingual language arts programs for children whose dominant language is not English. Nonetheless, research conducted over the past ten years in the U.S. and around the world has some implications for language arts instruction in the bilingual classroom. This paper presents a synthesis of research findings that are relevant to the development of oral language skills and to the teaching of reading to children whose home language is other than English.

Language arts programs in U.S. public schools generally attempt to develop children's skills in understanding, speaking, reading, and writing English. Bilingual language arts curricula for children who are not proficient in English usually consist of two components, one of which focuses on the traditional development of English language skills while the other involves the extension of language skills in the child's home language. The content of language arts in bilingual education programs,

as well as in monolingual school programs, is frequently divided into three major subject areas: oral language development; reading; and handwriting, spelling, and composition. Depending upon local school policy and/or teacher preference, the content of the three areas may be taught independently of each other during separate, unrelated blocks of time; taught in an integrated manner so that the teaching of all language skills is interwoven into the reading program; or taught in separate blocks of time which are related by a common content drawn from the reading program.

Regardless of the pattern of instruction, most elementary school programs focus on the teaching of the four basic language skills--understanding, speaking, reading, and writing. The amount of instruction provided in the non-English language is generally a function of the type of bilingual program (transitional or maintenance) being used by the school and, very often, the willingness and capability of the school staff to carry out the bilingual emphasis of the program.

ORAL LANGUAGE

FIRST LANGUAGE ACQUISITION--MONOLINGUALISM

CHILDREN LEARN LANGUAGE THROUGH MEANINGFUL INTERACTION WITH OTHERS.

Recent studies of first language acquisition suggest that children the world over learn their native language through meaningful interaction with the people around them. Children are not "preprogrammed" to learn a particular language. They will acquire the language which is most often spoken in their home. Language is not acquired by simple imitation of adult speech, however, but by a process in which children test hypotheses and gradually structure rules for the speech they hear. Children's language development proceeds through successive stages until the mismatch between what they hear and what they create is resolved. These stages are believed to coincide with certain maturational changes, changes which are governed to a great extent by the physical development of the brain.

In monolingual development, children progress through stages that are predictable on the basis of age. By the time children enter school at the age of five or six, they have generally entered the final stage in their native language acquisition. They have already acquired most of the basic oral structures of their language and have learned a good bit about the various styles of speaking used when people talk to each other under differing circumstances, such as modifying their speech in role playing and shifting styles when addressing authority figures.

MONOLINGUAL DEVELOPMENT TAKES PLACE IN STAGES.

It is the final stage of native language acquisition that is of particular importance for the classroom teacher. Research findings indicate that certain sounds may not be fully mastered by all children before age eight. A number of important syntactic structures (for example, passive sentences and sentences containing the verbs ask and promise) are still being acquired between the ages of five and ten. There is also semantic development (the meanings of words) after the age of six. Obviously, vocabulary is expanded and word meanings are elaborated throughout life. While the above examples have been taken from English, there is convincing evidence that children the world over progress without the aid of formal instruction through successive stages in language development similar to those identified for English-speaking children.

FIRST LANGUAGE ACQUISITION--BILINGUALISM

Many children living in various parts of the U.S. are exposed to and acquire two languages simultaneously in early childhood. Both languages are first languages for these children, although one is usually dominant in certain situations or with certain people. For example, if children hear one language from their parents and another from their playmates, they will tend to speak the home language to their parents and

use the other with their playmates. Contact with parents is often more extensive in early childhood than is contact with playmates, so the home language is likely to prevail as the child's dominant language. Perfect linguistic balance between parents and peers seems to be extremely difficult to achieve. Nonetheless, the relatively few studies of child bilinguals provide some evidence that children are capable of acquiring two or more languages simultaneously.

CHILDREN CAN ACQUIRE TWO OR MORE LANGUAGES SIMULTANEOUSLY.

Case studies of children raised under bilingual conditions during the first three years of life, while offering contradictory evidence in certain instances, reveal several general points of agreement. First, it is generally agreed that language acquisition follows the same developmental pattern in the bilingual child as in the monolingual child. In the area of phonology (sound system of the language) some researchers have noted an initial period of confusion in the learning of the sounds of the two languages. When the exposure to the two languages is similar, the period of confusion is relatively short. When one language is predominant, the sound features of that language may be substituted for those of the weaker language. Similarly, words that are difficult to pronounce in one language may be avoided--or, as frequently happens, an easier-to-pronounce word from the other language may be substituted in the child's active vocabulary.

Semantic development also appears to follow the same general process in both monolingual and bilingual acquisition. Children go through a period of over-generalization so that any animal may be, for example, referred to as cat or dog, gatito or perrito, depending upon the label first learned. Gradually the child learns to apply the proper adult label and a cat is always a cat and never a dog. It is argued by some researchers that, for the bilingual child, initially all words from both languages form a single vocabulary system; only gradually, as experience is gained with the two languages, does the child learn to differentiate

the words of the separate languages and to use them accordingly. An additional problem for the bilingual child is that the meaning of some words has different extensions in the two languages being learned. For example, the English word brush can be used for clothes brush or paint brush, whereas in Spanish a separate word is required for each. Thus the bilingual child must learn the restrictions of the labels as they apply to corresponding items in the two languages.

MORE DIFFICULT SYNTACTIC STRUCTURES ARE ACQUIRED LATER.

Syntactic structures--the order of words in sentences and forms of words such as run and running--appear to follow the same developmental order in the bilingual child's languages as they do for monolingual children. If both languages express particular information with similar structures, those structures tend to be learned simultaneously. If a structure is more difficult in one language, it is acquired later in that language. Thus, in the bilingual child, development of certain syntactic structures of one language may lag behind those of the other language because they are more complex.

SECOND LANGUAGE ACQUISITION

As distinguished from simultaneous acquisition of two languages, second (or successive) language acquisition normally takes place after the age of three or four, at a point at which one language--the mother tongue--has been relatively well established (but by no means fully established). Second language learning differs from first language acquisition in that: (1) the learning of a second language does not depend on developmental processes related to the developing brain chemistry, as is the case for first language acquisition, and (2) learning a second language is not the same as acquiring language skills "from scratch." It is seen by many researchers as a matter of adapting or extending existing skills and knowledge, rather than the learning of a completely new set of skills.

LEARNING A SECOND LANGUAGE IS HIGHLY INDIVIDUALISTIC.

The learning of a second language appears to be highly individualistic in nature. Not much is known about exactly how children learn a second language, but there is general agreement that motivation and the opportunity to learn are key factors. In addition, there appear to be "critical" periods, related to the flexibility and adaptability of the brain, beyond which certain aspects of second language learning are difficult to achieve.

DO CHILDREN LEARN A SECOND LANGUAGE BEST AFTER THE FIRST LANGUAGE IS ESTABLISHED?

Research has not established an optimal age for introducing a second language to children. A number of studies from various parts of the world report that children between the ages of six and eight experience considerable difficulty in second language learning. These same studies, and others as well, report that children who begin second language learning at the age of nine or ten, after the first language is well established, are more successful in acquiring second language skills than are younger immigrant children or native-born children whose home language is not the dominant language of the country. These studies do not agree, however, with data on Canadian immigrant children which suggest that children who arrived at older ages experienced greater educational difficulty than children who arrived prior to school entry or who were born in Canada. No definitive research on this topic has been conducted with U.S. populations. However, informal observations of a few researchers reveal that recently arrived immigrant children from Mexico whose Spanish is firmly established are more successful in acquiring English skills than are native-born Mexican Americans. Clearly, more research needs to be done in this area.

WHAT ARE THE EFFECTS OF BILINGUALISM?

SUBMERSION GROUPING CAN LEAD TO POOR COMMAND OF BOTH LANGUAGES.

The literature reveals that for middle income children who speak the country's dominant language, grouping classes for second language learning so that none of the children speak the language of instruction ("immersion" classes) seems to be a successful way to attain high levels of functional bilingualism and academic achievement. However, for children of low socioeconomic backgrounds who do not speak the dominant language, this immersion in second language learning is not as successful. "Submersion" grouping, which mixes nonspeakers and monolingual speakers of the language of instruction is also inadequate for low-income children learning the dominant language. For many non-English speaking children, such groupings can lead to inadequate command of both first and second languages and poor academic achievement in general. Social, cultural, and attitudinal factors, as well as linguistic factors, are believed to be implicated in these results.

SECOND LANGUAGE ACQUISITION CAN PROMOTE COGNITIVE GROWTH.

Very recent evidence suggests to some scholars and researchers that when the second language is viewed as an addition to rather than as a replacement for the first language, access to two languages in early childhood can accelerate certain aspects of cognitive growth and can lead to high levels of competence in both languages. In contrast, in situations in which the child's home language was being gradually replaced by a second language, bilingualism has been found to have negative effects. Many of these bilingual children are characterized by less than native skills in either language. This often has detrimental cognitive and academic consequences.

The recent studies have led to a current hypothesis that assumes that:

- *Those aspects of bilingualism that positively influence cognitive growth probably will not come into effect until the child has reached a minimum level of competence in the second language;*
- *The positive influences of bilingualism on cognitive growth will probably not occur if the child reaches only a very low level of competence in one language--either the first or the second language;*
- *While offering no advantages associated with bilingualism, a minimum level of bilingual competence may be sufficient to avoid any negative cognitive effects;*
- *A high level of bilingual competence may be necessary to lead to accelerated cognitive growth.*

TEACHING ORAL LANGUAGE SKILLS IN THE CLASSROOM

The oral language development of monolingual and bilingual children continues long after children enter school. With an understanding of the nature of language acquisition, teachers can assist in the growth and development of children's oral language skills.

LANGUAGE SKILLS MUST BE TAUGHT IN MEANINGFUL SITUATIONS.

Research has not identified any single, most effective method for teaching oral language skills to young children. Some scholars cite evidence and argue for simply immersing the child in the language and eliminating all formal instruction of the language. Others have demonstrated that careful sequencing and formal teaching of unfamiliar structures is effective in nurturing the growth of oral language skills. Yet others take a less extreme position, recommending a mixture of formal teaching and a wide exposure to the language or languages being learned. Common to all widely-used approaches today is the underlying assumption that language skills must be taught in meaningful situations; that children must have

wide exposure to the language; that they must have the opportunity and be encouraged to communicate in the language; and that nonmeaningful pattern practices and rote drills may contribute very little to the acquisition of communication skills in either first or second language. For young children, language games, role playing, puppetry, and the like appear to be effective techniques for motivating children to speak and for providing practice in the language.

Much research remains to be done in the field of bilingualism. However, the evidence to date suggests that:

- *Monolingual language acquisition and simultaneous acquisition of two languages in early childhood proceed through similar developmental stages;*
- *Second-language acquisition differs from first language acquisition in some important ways;*
- *Bilingual children's language skills are quantitatively different from those of monolingual speakers (for example, the child may have more than one label for a particular object--dog, perro, perrito) and qualitatively different from those of monolingual speakers (the child may know certain structures, such as the past tense, in one language and not in the other);*
- *Positive and negative effects of bilingualism may be related to the extent of development of the two languages and to the conditions under which the two languages are acquired.*

BETTY MACE-MATLUCK

READING

Any summary of research on reading in bilingual education will reveal widely differing studies of very different populations. For the purpose of this paper, our discussion will be limited to selected questions which seem to be of high interest and concern to classroom teachers:

- *Do children who learn to read first in their native language make more efficient readers after transition to a second language?*
- *When, and under what conditions, should a child be introduced to second language reading instruction?*
- *Which reading approaches or methodologies work best with bilingual students?*

INITIAL READING INSTRUCTION--NATIVE LANGUAGE VS. SECOND LANGUAGE

A basic tenet of bilingual education in the U.S. is that children should be instructed through the medium of their home language and that standard English should be gradually introduced, thus bridging the gap between the child's home environment and the larger society. While this apparently advocates giving all children initial reading instruction in their respective home languages, problems arise depending upon the languages involved. These problems are often related to social, cultural, and political factors, as well as to instructional and practical considerations.

Within any group of bilingual children, one can expect to find varying degrees of bilingualism. For example, some children may have reached normal development in their native language and be in an early stage in learning the second; others may have native or near-native control of both languages; yet others may have reached advanced stages in their second language but have retained only limited knowledge from the early learning of their native language. Thus, from the educator's

point of view, decisions about which language is appropriate for initial reading instruction for a particular bilingual child must include a consideration of the child's relative proficiency in the two languages, as well as the child's own pattern of language use.

Research on the effects of learning to read in the native language and of instruction through the second language indicates both positive and negative results for children who are expected to learn to read in two languages. Generally the research findings can be summarized as follows:

Native language instruction does not hinder reading in the second language. Children who are taught to read first in the native language for varying periods of time appear to be able in subsequent years to read the second language at grade level or above. A number of studies have looked at how well children learn to read in their native languages. Most studies show that children in bilingual programs in the U.S. read in their native language better than children from a similar population who have not been in bilingual programs.

Depending upon the characteristics of the children and the conditions under which instruction occurs, children can successfully learn to read in a second language before they are taught to read in their native language. The experimental programs on which these findings are based have generally presupposed that the goals of the program were to develop children who (a) are proficient in all aspects of the second language; (b) have a thorough mastery of the content subjects; and (c) are literate in their native language. Features common to these programs seem to be a large concentration of instruction in the second language accompanied by support activities in the native language, positive expectations on the part of the school, community support, and low student dropout rates. Most of these studies have also examined the effects of schooling in the second language on the growth and development of the children's native language. These studies

show that there appears to have been no retardation of the first language and that native-language reading skills of the children, after short periods of instruction, were comparable to those of the comparison groups.

Simultaneous reading instruction in two languages for beginning readers appears to yield negative results for bilingual children. Two major studies report that children who were taught reading skills concurrently scored lower on standardized reading tests than did children who were taught exclusively in one language. (See Cohen et al, 1976, and Macnamara, 1966.)

Additional generalizations which have relevance for teaching reading to the bilingual child may be drawn from the research.

- *Teaching of second language reading skills without oral language training is not likely to succeed;*
- *Oral language development activities in the very early years appear to contribute positively to the success of the reading program;*
- *The effectiveness of reading instruction in bilingual programs seems to increase with the number of years the program is in operation;*
- *Bilingual children may initially suffer disadvantages and slower rates of progress in reading, regardless of the language of instruction;*
- *The kind and amount of training the teacher receives seem to affect student outcomes in bilingual reading programs;*
- *Reading skills acquired in one language may transfer to another, with or without formal instruction.*

INTRODUCING SECOND LANGUAGE READING--THE TRANSITION PERIOD

Research on the optimum time to introduce reading in a second language and on the factors which aid successful transition into second

language reading is very limited indeed. Studies which have systematically varied the time at which second language reading was introduced by one-year or two-year units are inconclusive or tend to be uninterpretable. Most educators in bilingual programs feel that children must acquire at least a minimal level of oral competence in the second language before they can profit from reading instruction in that language. Research has not identified what that minimum level must be, or whether the acquisition of second language oral skills is essential for learning to read in a second language. However, in one recent study, a group of fourth and sixth grade bilingual students were tested for English reading achievement on two standardized English reading tests. Their oral English skills, measured on a standardized proficiency test of oral English, were compared with those of a control group of monolingual English-speaking kindergarten children. None of the fourth and sixth grade bilingual children who scored below the level of the kindergarten group in oral language skills were reading at grade level on the standardized reading tests.

DESIRE TO LEARN AND THE OPPORTUNITY TO DO SO ARE POWERFUL FACTORS.

Many educators believe that desire on the part of the child to learn to read in the second language and the opportunity to do so are powerful factors. In addition, the level of reading achievement the child has reached in her/his native language is felt by many to be an indicator of readiness to begin reading in a second language.

TEACHING READING TO BILINGUAL CHILDREN

A number of approaches are currently being used to teach reading to bilingual children in the United States. In addition to those traditionally used with monolingual English-speaking children, a number of methods (either in their original or adapted forms) used in schools in Spanish-speaking countries with monolingual Spanish-speaking children have

been implemented in U.S. bilingual programs. Research has generally indicated that no one method works equally well with all children, regardless of the child's language. At present there is no consensus within the field of reading as to exactly what is involved in the act of reading, nor is there general agreement on the most effective means of teaching children to read. There is even less agreement about how best to help bilingual children learn to read in two languages. However, a discussion of certain widely held beliefs about reading instruction may be useful here.

CHILDREN DRAW ON ORAL SKILLS AND KNOWLEDGE.

Research evidence indicates that most children do draw upon their knowledge of oral language when reading connected text. A number of studies have shown that some children draw heavily upon context clues and their knowledge of what the language requires as they work their way through unfamiliar material. For example, when confronted with the sentence, "The duck waddled into the ____," children draw upon their knowledge that the final word must be a noun, and that it should be something into which the duck might waddle, such as a pond, puddle, lake, river, or water. Some--and we suspect most--children also draw upon some kind of word analysis strategies (such as sounding out words or breaking them into parts) when they are confronted with unknown words, particularly when context clues are not adequate or when a variety of choices exists. Thus it would seem advisable that teachers select beginning reading materials for bilingual children that are consistent with their developing oral language skills and are related to their daily life experiences. Many teachers have found that stories dictated to them by the children often provide rich and relevant materials for reading instruction.

ALL SPOKEN LANGUAGES ARE "PHONETIC."

A number of myths prevail about teaching reading in Spanish. One often hears the statement, "Since Spanish is such a 'phonetic' language, it is easier for

a child to learn to read in Spanish than in English." The argument continues that since the sound-to-symbol correspondence of Spanish is relatively stable, a synthetic or "phonics" approach is most efficient and effective for teaching reading in Spanish. In reality, all languages are "phonetic" in a sense. Each has its own phonological system which is governed by arbitrary rules established historically by its speakers. The written symbols of any language seldom represent only a single sound. While it is true that there is a closer fit and greater consistency between the sound and written symbols of Spanish than there is in English, there is by no means a one-to-correspondence (for example, casa/cena; lejos/gigante; Dámelo/me lo da). Children learning to read in Spanish must still deal with a considerable amount of sound to symbol variation, depending upon the structure of the word or the place of the word in the sentence. They will undoubtedly have fewer distributional patterns (such as in the example above) to deal with in Spanish than in English, and in that sense Spanish may present fewer problems for the beginning reader. Nonetheless, research has not demonstrated that the process of learning how to relate sound to symbol is easier for children in one language than in another.

PROCESSING OF STRINGS OF LETTERS OR WORDS MUST BE RAPID.

The above statements also seem to imply that reading consists primarily of decoding or unlocking words through relating sounds to letters and that as words are "sounded out," or recognized through some means of word analysis, the meaning of the text will automatically unfold. Research on the information processing capabilities of the human brain suggests that the amount of information and the length of time that such information can be held in short term memory is quite limited. Thus for comprehension to occur, the processing of strings of letters or words must be extremely rapid. Instruction which encourages children to focus on one word at a time, or to use word analysis strategies excessively, may indeed impair comprehension of the written text.

There is some recent evidence that bilingual children employ the same strategies when reading, regardless of the language of the text. Children who have learned to rely heavily on particular word analysis strategies in reading in Spanish, for example, also rely heavily on those strategies when reading in English. Similarly, children who have acquired a variety of strategies for reading in one language will use various strategies when reading in another.

THE ISSUES HAVE NOT BEEN RESOLVED BY RESEARCH.

The issues surrounding the teaching of word recognition skills have not been resolved by research. Some argue that the teaching of phonics is an essential part of any reading program and that a particular sequence of instruction is superior to others. Others would eliminate altogether the overt teaching of word analysis skills and would have children gain the ability to read through heavy use of context clues and wide and continued reading practice. Yet others take a more moderate position and recommend that formal instruction in word analysis be delayed until children have gained some ability to read through the use of various other strategies, such as the use of sight words and context clues.

BILINGUAL READERS ARE NOT AN HOMOGENOUS GROUP.

Clearly, it is not possible, at least for the present, to identify any one approach to teaching reading that works best for all bilingual children. These children are not an homogenous group; they vary greatly in their degree of bilingualism, level of cognitive development, styles of learning, experience and background; effective instruction requires many decisions by the teacher which are based on children's individual needs. However, some generalizations based on research findings may be useful to the classroom teacher.

- *Children must learn early in the game that the marks on the page make sense--that words and combinations of words convey meaning. Young children can be helped to gain this insight through early exposure to books and by having stories read aloud to them.*

- *Children must learn that there are differences between the spoken and written forms of a language. This distinction can best be taught by reading aloud to children from a variety of appropriate, interesting materials.*

- *Children must learn to use a variety of strategies which will help them process visual information rapidly enough to allow comprehension to occur.*

- *Children must learn the conventions of print such as the graphic representation of words and the meaning of punctuation.*

- *Children must be given the opportunity to learn to read by reading--frequently and extensively.*

In summary, until research is more definitive, teachers can probably best serve the needs of bilingual children by observing the children as they attempt to read, noting which strategies or skills each child has acquired, and providing instruction which will extend the range of strategies each child can use successfully.

SELECTED READINGS

General

Center for Applied Linguistics. Bilingual Education: Current Perspectives, Vol. 5: Synthesis. Arlington, VA: Center for Applied Linguistics, 1978.

This book contains a concise and up-to-date synthesis of research on various aspects of bilingual education. Fourteen pages are devoted to research directly related to the teaching of reading and oral language development. It includes an extensive bibliography (42 pages) which cites most of the major works in the field.

Oral Language Development

Cummins, James. "Linguistic Interdependence and the Educational Development of Bilingual Children." Review of Educational Research. Spring 1979, Vol. 49, No. 2, Pp. 222-251.

This is undoubtedly one of the most significant articles to appear in recent years on the effects of bilingualism on cognitive growth. The central focus of the article is that positive or negative effects of bilingualism on cognitive growth may be related to the level of competence a bilingual reaches in each of her/his languages. Recommended reading for all educators.

Hatch, Evelyn M. (ed.) Second Language Acquisition: A Book of Readings. Rowley, Mass.: Newbury House Publishers, 1978.

Various well-known authors in language acquisition have contributed to this volume. Many important questions are asked in this research: What are the differences, if any, between first and second language acquisition? How does simultaneous acquisition of two languages in childhood differ from "successive" second language acquisition? Is there a sequence in the order of acquisition of particular language structures? Why do certain language structures emerge later than others? How does the learner eventually acquire native or near-native use of the second language? The book also contains abstracts of a number of additional works in the field that are of particular importance to second-language acquisition research.

MacLaughlin, Barry. Second-Language Acquisition in Childhood. Hillsdale, N.J.: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Publishers, 1978.

Here is a very readable, comprehensive overview of research findings on both first and second language acquisition. The book contains eight chapters, each of which focuses on different aspects of childhood language learning and/or teaching. Teachers working with bilingual children should find the entire book helpful. For those interested in second-language learning only, we would recommend chapters three through five.

Reading

Harvard Educational Review-A Special Issue: Reading, Language, and Learning. Vol. 47, No. 3, August 1977.

This is a special issue devoted to exploring the interrelationships between reading and language and their implications for education. Articles by Goodman & Goodman and Frank Smith will be of particular interest to reading teachers who work with bilingual children.

Kaminsky, Sally. "Bilingualism and Learning to Read." In A. Simões, Jr. The Bilingual Child: Research and Analysis of Existing Educational Themes. New York: Academic Press, 1976.

A down-to-earth discussion of factors which are believed to affect the acquisition of reading skills by bilingual children. Of particular interest are the sections on bilingualism and social class, bilingualism and reading texts, and bilingualism and prediction in reading.

Weaver, Phyllis and Fredi Shonkoff. Research Within Reach: A Research-Guided Response to Concerns of Reading Educators. St. Louis, MO.: CEMREL, Inc., 1978.

This small, but mighty, little book speaks directly to the teacher. Research findings are interpreted to provide focused and useful answers to important, specfic questions asked by practitioners. While the book does not deal specifically with issues in teaching reading to bilingual children, the information presented is equally applicable to the bilingual as well as the monolingual classroom.

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III. ISSUES IN MULTICULTURAL EDUCATION

This section contains the three presentations made at R&D SPEAKS: BILINGUAL/MULTICULTURAL EDUCATION. Margarita Rivas, Senior Trainer for SEDL's Follow Through Program spoke on "Introducing Culture in the Classroom." Wathene Young, director of the Indian Education Counseling Program (EPIC) at Northeastern State University in Oklahoma, discussed "Unlearning Indian Stereotypes." Bích-Chi Vũ-Thuởng Văn, an English-as-a-Second-Language Instructor at Austin Community College in Austin, Texas, remarked on "Vietnamese Children in U.S. Classrooms." The issue of multicultural education is a diverse one and these three presentations can do no more than suggest the subject's richness and complexity.

Each presentation is preceeded by an introductory section which describes the presentation in a general way, explains who the presente. was, and suggests what audience dynamics took place. The accounts of the presentations represent the speaker's words as faithfully as possible. Some editorial changes have been made to smooth the transition from oral to written communication, but the flavor of the presentations has been retained. Copies of handouts and references are provided when appropriate.

The three presentations have been collected into one paper, "Issues in Multicultural Education," which is being offered to educators in the SEDL/RX's six state region, along with the three bilingual papers reproduced in the previous section.

MARGARITA RIVAS

INTRODUCING CULTURE IN THE CLASSROOM

INTRODUCTION

Margarita Rivas grew up in the Rio Grande Valley of Texas. She taught public school at the elementary level in her home town for six years before accepting a position as elementary teacher to the children of oil company employees in Venezuela. This represented the first time she taught in a bilingual situation. Rivas lived in Venezuela for over eight years, experiencing first-hand what it is like to live in another culture. She returned to Texas to teach in San Antonio's Edgewood Independent School District, where important early accomplishments were made in the field of bilingual education. While at Edgewood, she helped field-test the Bilingual Kindergarten Program developed by Southwest Educational Development Laboratory (SEDL). In 1975, Rivas accepted the position of trainer for SEDL's bilingual Follow Through Model. The SEDL Follow Through Model is implemented in seven sites across the United States and as of 1980 begins its eleventh year of funding.

In her presentation Rivas suggests a humanistic approach to multi-cultural education, based on respect for each individual and the individual's particular culture. Recognizing that children must learn to live in the culture of the United States, she suggests that compromise is essential--on the part of both teachers and children. Rivas began the presentation by asking participants to write their definition of culture and two values of their culture on large sheets of paper. Displayed on the walls throughout the presentation, the definitions revealed a general understanding on the part of participants that culture is formed by society and manifests itself in behavior. A complete record of these definitions and values is included at the end of the paper.

Rivas' review of some of the definitions of culture and her remarks about the necessity for students to learn to adapt to the culture of the community caused discussion among participants. At issue was the difficulty of setting an arbitrary boundary line for what is acceptable and unacceptable and the need to compromise. In illustrating the point that teachers often stereotype people of other cultures without even realizing it, Rivas gave the example of the teacher who wanted her kindergarten students to sit in a circle. She said, "OK, everybody, let's all sit 'Indian-style'." This simple direction can build the concept in the children's minds that all Indians sit cross-legged in front of wigwams. A long time ago certain Indian tribes may have done this, but not any longer. Rivas suggested that the teacher might have said, "OK, everybody, let's sit on the floor in a circle with our legs crossed."

At one point in her presentation Rivas passed out a paper with sixteen definitions of terms related to culture, such as biculturalism and ethnocentrism. Many of the terms were ones she used in her discussion of culture. (The handout is included at the end of the paper.) Participants were asked to respond to the final item on the handout, which asked for examples of classroom incidents in which misunderstandings arose because of cultural differences. This prompted a lengthy discussion. One participant mentioned a boy who is taught to defend himself at home, but has a teacher who does not believe in physical violence. Another example was that of a teacher who requested the parent to come to school to discuss a child's disruptive behavior in the classroom. The parent sent a friend, the assumption being that it was necessary to have someone who was unbiased to negotiate. The teacher did not understand the different cultural value involved and felt that the parent did not care. Another example given was the unwillingness on the part of a teacher to learn a child's correct name when the name is in another language; the teacher gives the child an English name or an anglicized nickname. Still another example was the concept of time held by

different cultural groups which affects their punctuality (or lack of it, from someone else's perspective).

A rather involved example was that of an isolated Indian community in rural Oklahoma which has a 90 percent dropout rate after the ninth grade. The dropout rate, according to the participant, appears to be encouraged by the Native American parents and affects school morale as a whole. The discussion which pointed up a real concern for the area, led to the observation that Indian parents may have a very different concept of education from the one imposed upon them and their children by the whites and their school system. This in turn led to the remark that white people in America feel they can decide what is good for others. They impose their values on others, seem to assume that their values are superior, and see only themselves as "American."

At the end of her presentation, Rivas discussed ways of adapting existing materials to meet the needs of the children and ways to develop new materials. Finally, she handed out several examples of materials that have been developed by SEDL and by others which introduce culturally relevant concepts and activities.

MARGARITA RIVAS

INTRODUCING CULTURE IN THE CLASSROOM

A philosophy of cultural pluralism recognizes everyone's right to education. Many times this education takes a different turn than what we expect. This is, every child's culture is not always reflected in the curriculum that teachers have. Teachers often find themselves in their classrooms with 30 or more children: some of the children are from different cultural backgrounds. Teachers are faced with the task of instilling in these children an idea of self worth. A child's self worth is affected by how the teacher treats the child's culture. Your own culture--even though you may belong to one ethnic group--is an individual matter. It is what each person feels. Teachers must remember to treat each child as an individual and to respect each individual child. Teachers cannot stereotype the five children in the classroom who are Mexican American or Black or whatever. They cannot channel these five students into a little box and say "Just because you are Mexican-American, you belong in this category."

MOST TEACHERS ARE NOT TRAINED TO INTRODUCE CULTURE IN CLASSROOMS.

For the most part, the training that teachers receive is not geared to working with children of different cultures. It's just like in the subject of reading. How many reading courses does a typical teacher take in college? Probably only one. Yet when a teacher gets out of college, he or she is often put in this nice little room with all these little windows and expected to teach reading to 25 children! With only one course in reading, right? The same thing holds with culture in the classroom. To my knowledge, just like reading, there has not been enough work at the college level (or in-service training either for that matter) to prepare teachers to deal with the different types of children found in schoolrooms today.

When faced with the situation regarding reading, what does the principal, the coordinator, the site service specialist or whatever do to remedy it? He or she plans in-services for the teachers to get them up to a certain level so they are able to teach reading. Now I feel that teachers have not been given the opportunity of attending in-services related to cultural awareness. Not that in-services are going to change the world in one day--but at least they can create an awareness of the different types of children in their classrooms.

CULTURE IS THE RULES WE LEARN ABOUT HOW TO BEHAVE WITH OTHERS.

Culture can be defined, among other ways, as the rules we learn about how to behave with others. As we all know, there is no one way of acting. People with different cultures learn different rules. Yet often we tend to assume that there is only one right way: OUR WAY. What does this mean in the classroom? What is a teacher in a particular classroom supposed to know besides how to teach the basics? What are the teacher's responsibilities? How is a teacher going to meet the needs of the children? That is a challenge which every teacher who goes into a classroom has to face, regardless of whether the children are from low socio-economic, middle class, or affluent families. Teachers have to ask themselves, "What am I going to do with these children? How am I going to meet their individual needs?"

In the classroom, teachers make the rules and these are the rules the children must follow, regardless of how they may feel. What happens, for example, when a pupil learns one way of acting at home that is different from the teacher's way of acting? It is equally as proper, but it is different. Of course the child will act in the classroom the way he or she has been taught at home. And if the teacher reacts negatively to this behavior the child will be embarrassed and confused. Often teachers tend to assume that because a child does not act according to their rules, the child has no rules of behavior at all. Teachers assume

that the child is "cultureless." When a child's teacher says, "That's not the way to behave," how do you think the child feels? Probably that his or her culture is no good. And many times there is a hostile reaction which causes a power struggle between the teacher and the student. Learning what culture is can be the first step a teacher takes toward minimizing embarrassment and confusion.

CULTURE IS EACH GROUP'S WAY OF PERCEIVING, LEARNING AND CELEBRATING TOGETHER.

Culture can also be defined as each group's way of perceiving, learning, and celebrating together. It is the way we order our environment, both in terms of the objects we make familiar and the actions we regard as appropriate and expected. We make sense out of the natural environment by classifying objects in terms of their characteristics and uses. We organize the social environment by agreeing on proper ways to behave and by establishing relationships between members of the group. Culture, therefore, is the way we agree to conceive of the world around us and the way we agree to behave. The more complex the culture, the faster it changes and the greater the number of ways to behave there are. Often, as in this country, there are many cultures to be taken into consideration. That is what we mean when we talk about the complexities of modern life--the many changes in culture, in society, which offer so many alternative ways to behave. If we want to prepare our pupils for cultural pluralism, that is, prepare them to recognize alternatives, to see that there are different but equally valid ways of behaving, and to function effectively in a culturally diverse world, then understanding culture is a crucial process in education. That simply means we have to talk to the children, and we have to see their way of behaving and their culture.

UNDERSTANDING CULTURE IS A CRUCIAL PROCESS IN EDUCATION.

Teachers need to realize that the culture the children bring to school is just as good as the teacher's culture or the principal's,

or anybody else's. Let's face it, these children will be the adults and the leaders of the future. We must make them realize that they have to adjust to society. Does society adjust to the children? Or do the children adjust to society? Which way is it? We hope that the children adjust; that has been the traditional way. Can there be a compromise? There has to be one. What does adjusting do to the child's self-confidence? We read everywhere about helping the child's self-confidence, making the child feel good about himself or herself. But do teachers really do that? Do they really try to build up the children's self-concepts?

On the other hand, as a society, we have to learn to live within certain rules. When I was teaching kindergarten I used to tell my children this story when they are learning about rules. I would ask them what will happen if your father runs a red light and another car comes, and bang! "Oh," the children would say, "There's a big wreck." And I would tell them there's a big wreck because your father didn't stop. That stop sign is a rule that we have to live by. And it just depends on the child, from the child's experiences at home, whether or not he or she is going to follow the rules. Whether or not he or she will be able to cope with the problem. When the teacher gives the child a problem, will the child be able to solve it by applying the rules?

There is a problem involved both in reinforcing the child's activities and in reinforcing rules. There must be a compromise. But it's hard to say beforehand where the dividing line must be. The teacher or parent has to have some kind of invisible line, has to make some kind of adjustment or agreement or compromise.

The teacher in a classroom must take into consideration how all the children will be affected by the decisions that are made. The five Black or Mexican American children are just part of the class. How will the decisions affect the other 25 children? Teachers have to be very

careful about what kinds of decisions are made and how the problem is approached. We hope the children will reach a stage of awareness where they say to themselves, "Aha! I am in this town or community. They follow these rules here, so I myself, in one way or another, have to adapt to the culture." Sometimes, when children are exposed to two cultures at once, they really don't know how to take it. Either they are resentful of the second culture--they can't even appreciate it--or they feel restricted and inadequate about their own culture. They are really between the devil and the deep blue sea. They really are in the middle. They think, "I'm pulling this way, my home is pulling me that way." So a kind of resentment is built up in the child. Hopefully, what we want a child to do is to take a look at both cultures and say, "I have to take the best of each one." Not that teachers want to do away with the child's own culture. Both teacher and child have to compromise.

WE REWARD BEHAVIOR THAT CONFORMS TO OUR OWN EXPECTATIONS.

We all carry cultural baggage around with us. That is, we have our own language or dialect, our own ways of doing things, our own standards for judging how things should be done. We interpret the behavior of other people in other societies according to the way we expect people to behave. Our expectations are two-fold: we hold up certain ways in which we wish and think people should behave, and we allow certain deviations from this ideal. We approve of and reward behavior that conforms to our own expectations and norms. This natural tendency to judge others and their ways of doing things by one's own cultural yardstick is called "ethnocentrism."

Dealing with other cultures is usually difficult. When confronted with another culture for the first time, a person often experiences culture shock. You are stunned because you cannot relate to or understand what is happening around you. If you are to function in a strange cultural environment, you must learn to look objectively at the behavior

of the people around you. This is a challenge. It is one of the most difficult tasks anyone can have, particularly when contact with different cultures or behavior is closed. It is very easy for us to say, "Oh yes, I'd love to go to China and see the Great Wall." But what if you get five or ten Chinese people in your classroom? This is a totally different concept. Here you are actually dealing with people; while for a visit, you read about China, you accept the culture, but you really don't know the "nitty-gritty" of the problems and everything else unless you come into contact with the cultural group.

ALL HUMANS HAVE THE SAME STOCK OF EMOTIONS, BUT THEY DIFFER IN HOW THEY ARE EXPRESSED.

Since we have been trained from an early age to look at things from the point of view of our own culture, it is difficult to suddenly remove ourselves from our own subjective orientation. In fact, it is impossible to do so completely. We cannot quit being ourselves. Think about that: we cannot quit being ourselves. What we can do is remember that all humans have the same stock of emotions. All feel and display love, anger, hate, and joy. We differ in how, why, where, and with whom we display these emotions. And this in turn influences our perceptions of how other people should express themselves. Only as we become aware of the shared cultural base for our expectations and their subjectivity, can we begin to recognize the danger of thinking about people from other cultures in terms of our own cultural norms. When we do this, we can begin to see the cultural characteristics of others with a more objective viewpoint.

ONE WAY OF BEHAVING IS NEITHER BETTER NOR WORSE THAN ANOTHER.

One step in learning to look at other cultures objectively is realizing that culture signifies systematic, learned, behavior. It is not instinctive behavior. "Cultural relativity" is the idea that one way of behaving is neither better nor worse than another. They are simply different, and the difference is not due to the lack of order but is a

part of the cultural system. When we can see that there are many ways of doing things, that no one way has a greater value than the other, and that all these different ways of doing things derive from different cultural systems, we have a culturally relevant viewpoint. And this I think is what we are trying to do in our schools. We want to have a school--and an educational system--where everybody's input is equally as important.

ALL CULTURES EXIST ON BOTH THE REAL AND IDEAL LEVELS.

When observing culture it is useful to make a distinction between ideal and real culture. An ideal in our own culture, for example, is that marriage is very important, while the reality is that there are many divorces. Ideal culture is that which we see ourselves doing, how we perceive the things we do, how we categorize our experiences, both verbally and mentally. Ideal culture reflects beliefs and values, while our actual behavior is what we may call our real culture. For example, one ideal in our culture is to spend holidays together. Everybody spends holidays together. Or at least that's what we say in our books, "To grandmother's house we go, over the river and through the woods." But in reality, when do we get together for holidays? How many times do we really meet? Maybe for Christmas, Thanksgiving, Easter? There are two different concepts here: the real and the ideal. And it seems to me that the real culture is changing more and more because of the type of society we are living in.

IN OUR SOCIETY, CULTURE IS CHANGING MORE AND MORE.

Culture is also influenced by physical environment. This is a notion of cultural area: people living in the same geographical area share cultural features. Houston, Texas, is a very good example of a cultural area that is undergoing rapid change. Houston has grown by leaps and bounds. There are a lot of cultures coming to live in Houston. Ideally, people from the country--from a small town culture--say, "Oh, I'd love to live in Houston. There are so many opportunities there for

work, for education." But when they get to Houston they find that the real situation is quite different. They are culturally isolated. There is a high crime rate, everything costs so much, and so forth. And it's all because of the way Houston is growing.

Culture can be economic: people in the same socio-economic situation may share certain cultural features. My program has worked with children in the ghettos of Philadelphia, inner city Philadelphia. We find that they have the same kinds of problems that people had when I taught on the west side of San Antonio. Philadelphia and Texas are separated by a lot of states, but socio-economics also influences culture.

CULTURE IS WHAT ONE NEEDS TO KNOW IN ORDER TO GET ALONG IN A GROUP.

The traditional way of defining culture has been to describe its institutions. This includes its political institutions (the way power and responsibility are distributed in government), its economic system (the way goods and services are exchanged), and its social system (how society is arranged, what types of families there are). This is a useful way of defining culture, but there is a better way to describe culture as it relates to the educational system. Culture is what one needs to know in order to get along in a group on a minute-by-minute, hour-by-hour, day-by-day basis. This definition focuses on behaviors rather than institutions. Rather than talking about the family structure, it talks about the way mothers and children behave, about what kinds of behavior can be expected from people filling these family roles.

TEACHERS MUST PROMOTE AN APPRECIATION OF THE CHILD'S IMMEDIATE CULTURE.

We have been talking a lot about behavior. Do we want to change the teacher's behavior? If so, what kinds of stages must teachers go through in changing their behavior? How can you help, as far as in-services are concerned? Say you have a "brand new" teacher recently out of college who comes to work, let's say here in Austin, and she is going to be teaching

in a program with children who are from different cultures. What is the first thing the teacher might do? First she needs to have an AWARENESS of the area, to learn as much as possible about the community. But awareness just gives you a little peek and that's it. The second step is UNDERSTANDING. Teachers must know the different racial or ethnic groups reflected in the school population. That's where understanding comes in. The next step is APPRECIATION and VALUE. Teachers must promote an appreciation and value of culture in the students. Remember that to a child culture is the environment. The child is concerned with the immediate surroundings. And that's one thing that can be misleading. In some cases teachers try to instill in a child a culture the child is not even familiar with. Why would a teacher have a kindergarten child learn the Mexican national hymn, for example, when the child doesn't know the American anthem? We must promote an appreciation and value of the child's own immediate culture. COMMITMENT is the last stage in changing the teacher's behavior. And it will result in the teacher's conscious effort to foster cultural pluralism in the classroom and will enable students to work with others successfully, regardless of different cultures, heritage, lifestyle, and values, etc. It is most important that children learn about the different ethnic groups in the classroom. Students must learn to respect and value other groups as well.

Once a teacher is committed to making the curriculum culturally relevant, how is this accomplished? Often there are not enough books with culturally relevant activities, or there may not be enough money to buy the books in a particular school. So sometimes it is necessary to adapt existing materials. In adapting a curriculum to the culture of the students, there are three basic steps. The first is analyzing the materials to see what concepts are contained in them. Second, teachers question the pupils to see whether they are familiar with the concepts. Third, in order to illustrate the concepts, teachers devise supplementary learning activities which draw on the pupils' experiences and knowledge base.

WHEN ADAPTING MATERIALS IT IS NOT NECESSARY TO CHANGE THE OBJECTIVES.

When I say, "analyze the materials," that means look at them carefully. It is not necessary to change the objectives at all. The objectives remain the same. What teachers do is look at the materials, then find out if the children know the concepts. If not, what can the teacher do? Teachers should be able to work with the same curriculum, adapting it to the culture of the students. A good example would be food or nutrition. Different cultures eat different foods, but they are still from three basic food groups. Teachers can show children how the tamales, beans, and corn tortillas that Mexican American children often eat are nutritious and just as good as other foods. Another example of adapting a curriculum is community helpers. Remember that for children, culture is the immediate environment. In kindergarten, we always start talking about community helpers. Who are the community helpers? When I went to school they were the dentist, the doctor, the nurse, fireman, policeman. Nowadays I think we are relating to the community by telling children about the lady that works at Safeway, the checker, the custodian. Children soon begin to realize that each occupation is important.

We have not yet touched upon the role of the home or the parents in the school curriculum. It is most important that parents are taken into consideration as part of staff development or in-service training for cultural awareness. It should be a two-way learning street. Not only the teacher, but the parents themselves have to be aware of the culture within the schools, the culture of the teacher, when it is different from their culture. It is important that there be some kind of plan or alternative to include parents in talking about culture. In one of the Follow Through sites I work with we called in the parents and explained what the project was going to do. We felt that a lot of the material was not appropriate to the children's culture. We asked parents what kinds of things they wanted their children to learn in school related to culture. It was interesting that the topics they

came up with were: habitat, food, music, literature, holidays, contributions, arts and crafts, and customs. Our task was to devise activities and objectives for each of the topic areas. An important decision that was made during the first meeting was to define culture as the child's immediate environment. At the kindergarten level we started at the self, with the child learning about him or herself and including holidays, parties, and such celebrations. Then we tried to incorporate oral language, a language that was relevant to the way the children said things.

TEACH SONGS AND STORIES RELEVANT TO CHILDREN'S CULTURE.

In literature we found that one weakness was trying to translate nursery rhymes into Spanish. Why did we have to do this? A lot of cultural guides, for example, translate "Humpty-Dumpty" into Spanish, when really each culture has a rich collection of its own nursery rhymes, lullabies, and so forth. What we ended up doing was to compile a list of nursery rhymes that were relevant to the children's culture. They learned "Humpty-Dumpty," "Mary Had a Little Lamb," and all those in English, but we felt they also needed to learn the ones in Spanish. When I was a little girl we used to play outside with all sorts of little games. My nieces and nephews don't do that anymore. They are stuck to the front of the TV set, and a lot of our little poems are being lost. When the children grow up they are not going to be transmitting our little songs and poems in Spanish to their children because they do not know them. Sometimes I think we are losing some of our literature, so it is a good thing to teach the children songs and stories relevant to their culture.

In one of our other school sites, St. Martin Parish in Louisiana, the teachers took a different route. They developed materials relating just to their own parish. Their topics were honeybees and beekeeping, salt, sugar cane, holidays, petroleum, the government, and geography of the parish and its landmarks. What the teachers did was

start with their own immediate community and develop some materials which included background information, exercises and activities for the children. They didn't rely on someone else to do this for them.

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INTRODUCING CULTURE IN THE CLASSROOM

HANDOUTS/RELATED MATERIALS

SOME MEXICAN AMERICAN FOLK REMEDIES

Note: The folk remedies are taken from Mexican Americans in Texas and may not apply to Mexican American populations in other parts of the country.

1. Curandero(a): One who cures. The curandero may practice in the barrio or in rural areas. He renders inexpensive, personal services not offered in the highly structured, unfamiliar medical environment of the dominant society. A curandero does refer patients to doctors when he feels he cannot treat a problem: Curanderos usually furnish both treatment and medication and do not have a set fee. They generally feel their healing powers are a gift from God. Patients pay whatever they can afford, often in foodstuffs.

2. Partera: Midwife. The services of the partera are more common in rural areas than in cities. Often medical facilities may be at such a distance that families in rural areas cannot make use of them. They are also expensive and impersonal. Women are using more and more, however, the services of neighborhood clinics which have been built in some rural areas.

3. Mal de ojo: The evil eye, can be cast intentionally or unintentionally on people, plants, and animals by someone who admires them without touching them. Symptoms of people suffering from mal de ojo include seizures, fever, nausea, headache, and eye pain. Animals sicken and die; plants lose their leaves and die. Babies are considered especially susceptible, and people admiring a baby will touch the baby to counteract the possibility that they have given him the evil eye. Sickness caused by mal de ojo can be prevented or cured by having the individual who cast the evil eye touch the person or object. If this is not possible, an egg is rubbed over the sick person and prayers are recited. The next day, the egg is broken into a glass of water and the glass is placed under the sick person's bed, below his head. By the end of the day, the mal is considered to have gone into the egg if a small "eye" appears in the egg. An egg with a cooked appearance indicates a particularly severe mal.

4. Susto: Fright caused by some sort of shock. A person suffering from susto loses weight and is nervous. It is believed that if the condition goes untreated, the victim's blood will become weaker and weaker until he dies. Treatments take place on three consecutive nights. Branches are brushed over the sick person and prayers are said. Holy water is drunk by the sick person.

5. Empacho: A stomach disorder believed to be caused by eating unwanted or disliked food. A child suffering from empacho may be given a jar of water to drink periodically. The water is considered medication.

6. Earache: A piece of paper is rolled into a cone. The small end is inserted into the afflicted ear, and the other end of the cone is lighted. The heat and smoke are believed to cure the earache.

7. Kidney or bladder ailments, bed-wetting: Cornsilk is boiled to make a tea for the sick person to drink.

8. Sore muscles, partial paralysis from stroke, wrinkles: Romero or rosemary leaves are boiled to make a tea. The leaves are strained and the liquid patted onto the afflicted part. The potion produces a pulling sensation that relieves soreness in muscles, partial paralysis from stroke, and prevents wrinkles.

9. Cuts, burns, and scars: Leaves from the Alovera plant are broken open and put on the afflicted areas. The fluid from the leaves is believed to heal cuts and burns, prevent new scars from forming, and remove old scars.

10. Scorpion stings: A fresh-cut clove of garlic is rubbed over the stung spot.

TERMS RELATED TO CULTURE

1. Biculturalism: the ability to function in and to appreciate two cultures.

2. Bilingualism: the ability to function effectively in two languages and to understand the cultures they represent.

3. Cultural Area: the geographic environment and/or socio-economic strata which influence the experiences and values of the people within them.

4. Cultural Baggage: the attitudes, standards, and expectations we have as a result of the environment in which we were brought up. In a sense, it is as if you said, "I am the me that has accumulated certain experiences in life--the me that I am at this point in life."

5. Cultural Relativity: the concept that there are many ways to do any given thing and that no one way is better or worse than another; it is simply different.

6. Culturally Relevant Viewpoint: the perception that there can be many valid ways of doing the same thing.

7. Culture:

   a. Tylor: that complex whole which includes knowledge, belief, art, morals, law, customs, and any other capabilities and habits acquired by man as a member of society.

   b. Kluckhohn: a historically derived system of explicit and implicit designs for living, which tend to be shared by all or specifically designated members of a group.

   c. The New Ethnographers: what one needs to know in order to get along in a group on a minute-by-minute, hour-by-hour, day-by-day basis. "What one needs to know" will include knowledge, belief, art, morals, law, customs, language, etc.

8. Culture Shock: the temporary stunned, alienated feeling one suffers when thrust, for the first time, into a totally new cultural environment, where the expectations and cues of the people in that environment are unknown.

9. Ethnic: related to inherited group distinctions which serve to identify one group of people from another.

10. Ethnocentrism: the normal, natural tendency to judge others' behaviors according to one's own attitudes, standards, and expectations.

11. Ideal Culture: the way a culture is perceived, usually related to values and standards rather than to actual behavior.

12. Low-Income Culture: the concept of experiences, beliefs, and values shared by low-income people regardless of race or geographic location.

13. Middle-Income Culture: the concept of experiences, beliefs, and values shared by middle-income people, regardless of race or geographic location.

14. Objectivity: uninfluenced perception of something.

15. Real Culture: actual behavior within a culture.

16. Subjectivity: perception influenced by one's own emotions.

Discuss the following question:

Give some classroom incidents (involving teacher and children, children themselves, or children and curriculum materials) where misunderstandings arose because of cultural differences.

CULTURE AND ACCOMPANYING VALUES

AS DEFINED BY PARTICIPANTS AT
R&D SPEAKS: BILINGUAL/MULTICULTURAL EDUCATION
NOVEMBER 12-13, 1979

DEFINITIONS OF CULTURE	ACCOMPANYING VALUES
Language, beliefs, customs, religion modes of thinking (attitudes), and ways of doing things that collectively give a group of people their identity.	1. Work ethic 2. Belief in "Golden Rule" i.e., "Do unto others," etc.
Culture consists of knowledge, interests, habits, values which an individual chooses and in so doing becomes a part of a segment of society.	1. Respect for all people and all things 2. Love of learning
Outward manifestations and expressions inherent to a person's innermost feelings and experiences as nourished by societal groups predominant to that person.	Family unit, support, educational growth, development
Culture is a learned set of behaviors that permeate all aspects of our daily activities. These behaviors are conditioned by a value system that is transmitted from one generation to another. Value systems change from one generation to the next and from person to person, thus culture is dynamic--not static--although some aspects of a culture may remain constant over long periods of time.	1. Work ethic--each person should contribute to the extent of his ability. 2. Three meals a day--breakfast (eggs, bacon, toast, and juice) eaten shortly after getting up.
Culture is something that you acquire by birth. Being at the right place at the right time OR being at the wrong place at the wrong time.	1. sincerity 2. self-confidence

DEFINITIONS OF CULTURE	ACCOMPANYING VALUES
Culture = the way I act, think, speak, based on rules/norms taught by: . religion . society . history	To help me interact humanly. To free me to be me.
Culture is our ancestral heritage.	Attitude toward life; a re-incarnation. The physical body is only a vehicle to travel from the past into the present.
To me, culture is the background/drop of me or my identity. My culture is reflected in my behavior, attitude, values. Either through environment, as a child, or self imposed.	My perception of myself as a woman, role of a woman: career, domestic, wife, mother. Attitudes toward others being culturally different enables one to respect/admire differences in others. We are all different.
Culture is one of the things that my parents gave to me.	1. Sense of belonging. 2. Direction
Culture is the sum total of experiences affecting an individual's behavior (overt and covert) and thoughts.	1. Honor 2. Punctuality
Culture--the total effects of one's heritage, including his/her language, customs, ethnic behaviors, religious and social practices.	1. Determines one's social, religious, and political inhibitions. 2. Provides a framework for the development of one's personality.
Culture is like a web of everything around us: beliefs, values, language, family structure and dress. Everything we take for granted and don't notice til someone else points it out.	1. Acquiring material goods is valued. 2. Conforming is valued.

DEFINITIONS OF CULTURE	ACCOMPANYING VALUES
Culture: Customs, beliefs, values, etc., that determine how I act and what I believe and feel.	1. Value the importance of the individual; worth of the individual and recognition of individual differences and needs. 2. Value the importance of education and the dignity it gives to the individual.
Culture: Those factors in one's environment which form his/her beliefs, customs, personal actions, such as religion, ethnic background, economic status, parental and peer influences.	1. Family is important. 2. In every day there is something good.
Culture: lifestyle, beliefs, food, literature, art, music.	1. Respect for elders 2. Sharing
Culture--the learned, societally-transmitted and dependent system of social behaviors, attitudes, and beliefs.	1. Work hard to "succeed in life" 2. Decision by majority
Culture is one's perception of the world. It concerns those segments of life that govern and/or influence the way that one behaves. Therefore one's perception of the "world" based on various life segments will affect the manner in which one responds to his/her environment.	1. Language 2. History--heritage (Education) 3. Self-concept
Culture--the customs, language, history political system, religion, native foods, values, etc., of a particular group of people.	1. To do well at your job. 2. To be liked by others
Culture: Formal--literature, music, history, heroes, art. Informal--food, dress, language, remedies, beliefs, dichos.	1. Understanding self 2. Liking self

DEFINITIONS OF CULTURE	ACCOMPANYING VALUES
My culture is reflected in the way I look, think, and act. It is a combination of Texas and Anglo Saxon heritage and literary influence.	Two values of my culture are: intellectual curiosity and independence.
Culture: My language, life style, literature, art forms, and social-historical oral expressions which differentiates my social/ethnic group from others.	1. Roots 2. Direction
Culture: Forces in my life that influence the way I think and act.	1. Something to hang my hat on. 2. Gives a sense of identity.
Culture is the individual's total: religion, work orientation, recreation, family membership, and attitude of his fellow man.	1. Honor (family name) 2. Work (dignity of work)
Culture is ME. 1. Values 2. Home and family 3. Friends, work, community, close environment 4. World, environment	1. Work 2. Integrity

ADAPTING CURRICULUM

Example

Below are several excerpts from lessons, as well as concepts and learning activities. Read each excerpt. In the blank space after each, put: (1) the letter of the concept that fits the excerpt, and (2) the letter of the learning activity that will best reinforce this concept.

Excerpt

1. (Social Studies) We are all facing North. When you face North, East is always to your right. _____

2. (Geography) Jimmy comes from California. Nancy is from the South. Helen was born in this town. _____

3. (Arithmetic) Mark had 35 cents. He bought two balloons at 5 cents each and a bag of peanuts for 10 cents. How much did he have left? _____

4. (Social Studies) A page showing pictures of a ship, airplane, car and train. _____

5. (Science) Look at the clouds in the pictures. Some are big and fluffy. Some look like feathers. Some make a layer across the sky. _____

6. (Arithmetic) Mary called her mother at 3:45p.m. She said she would be home in 1 1/2 hours. What time will Mary be home? _____

Concept

a. money

b. types of clouds

c. communication

d. directions

e. time

f. transportation

g. the difference between state and country

h. people come from many places

UNLEARNING INDIAN STEREOTYPES

BY

WATHENE YOUNG

WATHENE YOUNG

"UNLEARNING" INDIAN STEREOTYPES

INTRODUCTION

Young, a Cherokee-Delaware, is director of the Indian Counseling Program (EPIC) at Northeastern State University in Tahlequah, Oklahoma. She has also been director of Indian Pupil Education for the Tulsa Public Schools and received a Ford Fellowship in Advanced Studies for American Indians. Young began her presentation by emphasizing the plurality of Indians in the United States. The term "Indian" is a misnomer since there are many tribes, all with different characteristics. Some are dark-skinned, some light. Some live on reservations, some do not. Some are rural, some urban. Not only is it inaccurate to apply the term "Indian" to these groups of people, but there are stereotyped ideas about what the word "Indian" means. To illustrate, Young asked the participants to take a piece of paper and write down the first three things they thought of or imagined when they heard the word "Indian." These she wrote on a chalkboard and referred to several times during the presentation. Participant responses included:

feathered headdress
respect for nature
oppression by white government
rural
southwest
reservation
myself
Navajo
nature
quiet
reserved
intelligent
determined
self-sufficient
warrior
smoke signals
arrows
pride
pensive
respect
integrity
pilgrims
Paul Newman (who played an Indian in a movie)
Tio Juan (someone's uncle)
tribe
treaty
Native American
tribal groupings
accommodating life to the environment
special clothing
noble
unusual languages

pipe
straight hair
shelter
Oklahoma
Edward Curtis (photographer of Indians)
tipi
oil

Young then explained that she does this exercise with her students to determine their image of Indians. She pointed out that these images mostly represent characteristics of Plains Indians, usually Sioux, rather than the varied Indian cultures in the United States, and that the stereotyped images of Indians come from many sources: movies, television, books, advertisements, and traditional history. It is time to change these stereotypes, claimed Young, since those who control the images control the mind.

Young continued by discussing the rural Indian schools in Oklahoma, then reviewed the history of Indian Education in the United States, bringing the participants up to date on the status of Indian education. In response to a participant question about where Indian education was going to fit in the newly created Department of Education, Young said that they were not sure, perhaps in Bilingual Education, and that Indian education would not be discontinued since monies for it represented such a small amount when compared to funds for other projects.

Young also discussed the use of Indians as mascots for football teams. Indian mascots are fairly common, more so than other racial or national groups. A rather lengthy discussion with participants resulted. The different epithets used to describe different cultural groups were brought up, such as Redskin, Fighting Irish, Kraut. The point was made that stereotypes impose certain images on groups, denying group members the power to define themselves. Occasionally, people who use sexist or racist terms say, "Well, I didn't mean anything by it," but that misses the point. The feelings of the people referred to should take priority.

Finally, Young showed a new filmstrip called, "Unlearning Indian Stereotypes" from the Council on Interracial Books for Children's Racism and Sexism Resource Center for Education. The filmstrip showed a group of Indian children examining the various stereotypes of Indians found in children's books and the commercial media. The children's reactions illustrate that these stereotypes are inaccurate and often derogatory. Young recommended the filmstrip and the accompanying resource materials for use in classrooms or for training teachers.

"UNLEARNING" INDIAN STEREOTYPES

It's really difficult, as a Cherokee-Delaware, to talk about Indians. We've all talked about Indians for hundreds of years here in America, and it's really presumptuous of me with a limited knowledge of my own culture and that of the Indians of Oklahoma to talk about "Indians" as a national term. The term "Indians" is a misconception. I was reading something last night that said, "Until Columbus came, there were no Indians." I thought that was very amusing. "Until Columbus came, there were no Indians." We were many tribes and many nations of people. You know where the term "Indian" came from? It came from the fact that Columbus landed in the Bahamas and since he thought he was in India, he called the people he met "Indians." In reality, this country is a nation made up of many different Indian nations. So it's very difficult for me to talk about Indians because there is so much that can be said. There are so many categories of Indians today.

I live now in Tahlequah, Oklahoma, in the capital of the Cherokee nation, where there are a lot of Cherokees. A misconception I'd like to deal with here is that not all Cherokees are blonde-headed and blue-eyed. The majority who are full-blood Cherokee stay in Cherokee country. And we don't have any Cherokee princesses down in the Cherokee nation. Those are the ideas you meet when you leave Indian country, and I consider Tahlequah Indian country.

Tahlequah is a rural area. It's the heart of the Cherokee nation. I moved there from Tulsa a couple of years ago. Part of the Cherokee nation is in the northern part of the state, and it's not as heavily populated as the Tahlequah area. I have noticed more prejudice in rural areas than in urban ones. This is something I really didn't experience until I moved to a rural area. In an urban area, like Dallas for example, it's okay to be an Indian. There aren't too many of us! So it's always fun to come to Texas because there are not any Indians here, basically, and the ones who are here are very well thought of.

The community is really open and involved with helping the Indian community.

INDIAN EDUCATION IN OKLAHOMA

THERE ARE 54 INDIAN TRIBES IN OKLAHOMA TODAY.

As I said, I come from Oklahoma and for those of you who are from there, I'm not saying anything you don't know. But for those of you who aren't, I'd like to talk about Indian education in Oklahoma, In Oklahoma we've got many different tribes. In fact, I believe that the official count is 34. When I worked in Tulsa I directed the Indian program. We had 54 different tribes represented in the school system. Oklahoma was at one time Indian territory, and many Indian nations have settled there. We've had an influx of people from all over: we have Navajos in Oklahoma, we have Mohawks, we have rural Indians and urban Indians. We don't have reservation Indians in Oklahoma, though, like most people think.

In the area that I come from we have a rural Indian population. There are a lot of bilingual people in the area. Many of our people still speak Cherokee. We have little schools that are 50 to 90 percent Indian. The majority of the schools are 20 or 30 miles from town and some are not Indian controlled schools. They have white school boards and mostly white teachers. In the past couple of years we've begun to see a few changes in having some Indian teachers, but basically the schools are white. They are not Indian community schools, and yet they are schools with Indian populations. The school boards in these schools are white because the white people get out and vote. They are the power structure in the community. The Indian people are very rural, very isolated, and have never been a part of that community so they don't see that the public school system in Oklahoma is basically their school system. But this is changing. Title IV is really beginning to change things. More Indian parents are beginning to feel that they have some input because of the Indian Education Act.

INDIAN PARENT COMMITTEES ARE BECOMING MORE INVOLVED.

Although we've had Indian education since 1972, in one rural town I know, the Indian parent committee has become involved just in the past year. They've had a parent committee in the past that pretty much did everything the superintendent wanted them to do. Recently a new group of parents got involved and did a survey of the teachers there. They turned in a head count of 50 percent Indian students for their Title IV count, and fewer than five identifiable Indian teachers. Fewer than five identifiable Indian teachers!

At Northeastern State University where I teach, we have graduated 208 Indian teachers out of our Indian teacher training program. We got a national distinguished achievement awarded for teacher colleges, and yet this town has hired only one of our people! So the Indian parent committee went to the school board and told them they wanted Indian teachers hired. The school board said, "We didn't realize we didn't have Indian teachers." And they said things like, "Well, we've always had sympathy for the Indian community." Then the Indian parents talked about role models, and one administrator asked, "How do I know if a person is an Indian?" And the parent committee said, "If they look like we do. We're Indian. We look like Indians." And the president of the school board said, "R-r-role model? What's a role model? Has it got a number?" This situation is a reflection of a lot of the attitudes in the schools in Oklahoma: "sympathy" for Indian children, yet not realizing the importance of role models.

I've just given you a little background about some of the experiences I've had in Oklahoma that may be a little different from the experiences of a Navajo, a Mohawk, or from an Indian in Washington. It's really hard to generalize, but in fact that's what we do, we generalize, we all talk about tipis, even though we know all Indians don't live in tipis. We talk about arrows, we talk about Pilgrims, but we don't usually talk about Cherokees, Navajos, Hopis, tribes, or nations, which we should talk about. Now let me speak a little about the history of Indian education.

WATHENE YOUNG

THE HISTORY OF INDIAN EDUCATION

THE ANNIHILATION PERIOD: 1492-1870.

From the time of Columbus until about 1870, we have what I call the Annihilation Period in Indian education. It's also called the Missionary Period because the missionaries basically took over the education of Indian tribes. When we talk about the Annihilation Period, that sounds like pretty strong terms, but what are some of the things that are happening at this time? Does anybody have any idea what the policy of the government was? In 1832, the Office of Indian Affairs was established. You know where it was established? Under what department? The War Department. So you can see the philosophy of the federal government toward Indians. In the War Department.

THE ASSIMILATION PERIOD: 1870-1933.

In about 1870, right after the Civil War, the Federal government gets involved in the education of Indians. We call this the Assimilation Period. The government alloted $20,000 for the education of the Indians. What it wanted to do was to force assimilation. And so boarding schools were established, and most of them were established away from Indian country. Because how do we assimilate people? By taking them away from their culture, their customs, their values, their families. And the Indian children were sent to Carlisle, Pennsylvania. The children were not allowed to speak their native tongue in the schools. They were taken away from their families at an early age. And once they went back home they really didn't belong at home, did they?

THE INDIAN REORGANIZATION PERIOD: 1933-1968.

In the 1930's, the children coming out of the boarding schools, moving off the reservation, began to go to the public schools. There is a period of years here, from 1933 to 1947, when the government re-established a lot of the tribes. The Indian Reorganization Act, the Howard Wheeler Act, and the Johnson-O'Malley Act were passed during this time. The Johnson

O'Malley Act is the first time the public schools are given money for the support of Indian children. Now the Indian children don't get the money, the schools get the money for educating the Indian children. Johnson-O'Malley funds were given to the general funds of the schools. The principal used to come around and get my role number and count me on Johnson-O'Malley, and I always wondered why he got extra money for me.

THE SELF DETERMINATION PERIOD: 1968-PRESENT.

And then we look down to the period we are now in, the period of Indian Education. It began in the 1970s, really in the late '60s, and continues to the present. I call this period of Indian history the Self Determination Period. It really began in 1968 with the Subcommittee on Indian Education, which was of course headed by Robert Kennedy and picked up by Ted Kennedy after Robert was killed. The Committee on Indian Education, chaired by Kennedy, conducted intensive investigations. They visited Oklahoma, they visited the reservations. I don't think I need to talk about the report that resulted. I think most us are familiar with it. It's called A NATIONAL TRAGEDY, A NATIONAL CHALLENGE. And from that report came the Indian Education Act of 1972. With that act, for the first time, Indian parents were given sign-off approval for funds that are supposed to be spent on Indian children. Up until this time, Indian people had no control over the education of their children. But now they have input regarding the needs of the children in the schools. The parents are supposed to have the on-going review and evaluation of the program, and of course they sign the proposal. That happened in 1972 and probably just in the past couple of years have Indian parents begun to participate in the process.

I gave an example earlier of a Title IV program in a rural town in my area of Oklahoma. Just in the past year did the parents really get involved and really start looking at the public schools and asking, "Where are the Indian teachers? What are you doing with those funds?" We have another source of monies in the Johnson-O'Malley funds. Now that the

basic concept is established, the parent committee also helps determine where the Johnson-O'Malley funds go. There's a difference between the Johnson O'Malley funds and the Indian Education funds. Indian Education Funds, Title IV, come directly from Washington. So the parent committee and the superintendent deal with Washington. In my part of the state, the Johnson-O'Malley funds go to the state department.

Talking about Indians, you're talking about so many different things. If you are talking about Arizona and New Mexico, you're talking basically about reservation Indians and a lot of tribal control. If you're talking about Oklahoma, we don't have what we call reservations like you do in New Mexico and Arizona. We have rural Indians and urban Indians. Although we do still have a lot of tribal programs, a lot of the funds have come from the same source, Title IV. There are several categories for Title IV grants in Indian Education. Part A goes to the oublic schools; part B goes to tribes or Indian organizations. The schools still have Johnson-O'Malley funds.

TITLE IV HAS MADE SIGNIFICANT CHANGES IN INDIAN EDUCATION.

In a lot of these areas the tribe does have control. For example, in some of the areas where the Navajo children go to public schools, the control they have is through their parent committees. A friend of mine was a director of a Title IV program in Gallup about three years ago. She had one Navajo on the parent committee and the school is over 90 percent Navajo. I'm sure that has changed by now. Title IV Indian Education has really made some changes, because for the first time many people are beginning to realize that they have something that's definitely set aside for them and they've got some input. And it's taken since 1972 for the parents to begin to catch on and to begin to get involved. It's a slow process. And there's a lot of misuse of Title IV funds still. Today they're used for teachers, for planning, to pay part of a teacher's cost, to service all students. You can go on and go on about all the things they can do with Title IV funds.

But it's successful because Indian parents are involved. And for the first time Indian parents are going up to the schools and they're sitting down with the superintendent or the principal or the school board, and talking about their children. That's never happened before. So one thing you can say about the success of Title IV is parental involvement.

There is a national Indian council involved in Indian education. It's what we call NACIE, The National Advisory Council on Indian Education. I think there are fourteen people on it. We have a person from Oklahoma who's on NACIE, and I know we have some people from Arizona, California, New Mexico, and Seattle, Washington. And of course there are some other national Indian Advisory boards, too, but this is the big one for Indian education. NACIE was set up by the President, and it's really a national parent committee, like a parent committee over the local funds in the schools. They are supposed to help set policy and they have been fairly effective, I think, The people on NACIE are lay people, community people, professional people, so its composed of a cross-section of the Indian community. When I talk about the Indian community, I talk about it nationally. There's a "pan-Indian" move going on now. There has to be, because all the funds that come out of Washington aren't funds that go just to the Pueblo, or just to the Cherokee. They go to all of us.

INDIAN STEREOTYPES

Now I want to talk briefly about stereotypes. You all talked about culture in the classroom yesterday. I like this one: "to enhance the children's self concept and change their attitude toward school, the environment must raise their perception of their own culture." Has that happened to Indian students? What do you know of Indian culture? What do Indian students know about Indian culture? Do you think Indian students know more about Indian culture than non-Indians? It depends on where they come from, doesn't it? It depends on whether they've been raised in their

culture. Understanding culture is crucial to the process of education. I think that if we look at our textbooks and listen in the classrooms, we'll see that very little is said about Indian culture or Indian history. What is our image of Indians? Bows and arrows, tipis, the naked savage, the noble savage. We have a textbook at the college where I teach. The college has the largest Indian population in the country, and do you know what statement was in that textbook? This is a current textbook. "The half-naked Indian."

And how many symbols do we have nationally that use the "Indian" as an object? As a mascot? Northeastern State University's is the "Redman." The University of Oklahoma used to have "Little Red." I was at OU during the controversy, though I wasn't involved in it. They had a dancer named Kirk Kickingbird--he's an Indian attorney now--and he wore his war dance clothes which are symbolic for many different tribes, basically plains tribes. And he would dance at the pow-wow. I thought about this a long time too and I thought, "Well, is there anything wrong with that?" He's not making fun of the Indians. He is an Indian, he is wearing the clothes, he is doing the appropriate dance. But the students argued that this is a race of people and these dances are ceremonial. Today, they are social. Basically, pow-wows are social. They are part of the pan-Indian movement to bring Indian people together, but they are still traditional. And the songs that are sung, that the dancers dance too, are traditional songs. They have a lot of meaning and a lot of heritage in them. And for us to do these dances as a mascot at a football game is the big complaint the students made. We're a race of people. We're not on the same level as a Razorback, Pistol Pete, and some of the other symbols that football teams use. What if we were called the Blackmen? Is there any difference? Or the Italians? We're a race of people and we really aren't a mascot for football teams. And I think using Indians as a mascot perpetuates the image to children, and to grown-ups too, that we don't think of Indians as being real people.

In conclusion, I would like to offer some suggestions on ways to teach children:

Don't equate Indian people with objects.

Study the present as well as the past.

Don't talk about "them" and "us".

Remember there are many Indian cultures.

Remember there are many physical differences among Indian people, as there are in all groups.

Try to learn tribal/national names and use them (Sioux, Apache, Navajo, Delaware, and so on) rather than "Indian."

When you find stereotypes, discuss them in class and teach students to recognize them.

BÍCH-CHI VŨ-THƯỜNG VĂN

VIETNAMESE CHILDREN IN U.S. CLASSROOMS

INTRODUCTION

Bích-Chi Vũ-Thường Văn came to the United States from Viet Nam with her husband and four children in 1975, after the fall of Saigon. She was educated in Europe, having completed her undergraduate studies at the University of Paris-Sorbonne, with a major in English. She also attended a one-year course at the Institute of Education, University of London, England, which led to the Diploma in the Teaching of English as a Foreign Language. From 1958 to 1959, she was Lecturer of English at the College of Letters and Humanities, National University of Saigon. She then became Specialist at the High School Textbook Publication Service, Ministry of Education in Saigon. After five years she resumed her teaching career as an English teacher at Saigon's Lyceé Marie Curie, a French high school.

At the present, Bích-Chi Vũ-Thường lives in Austin, Texas with her family. She is an instructor of English as a Second Language at Austin Community College, a graduate student at The University of Texas at Austin, and editor/publisher of a bilingual cultural monthly magazine called, "Quê me/Homeland," in which this paper appeared. Coming from a very different culture and educational system, she is in a position to present some thought-provoking observations about the educational system of the United States. She also brings a special perspective to bilingual/multicultural education, a perspective based both on an international education and on personal experience.

VIETNAMESE CHILDREN IN U.S. CLASSROOMS

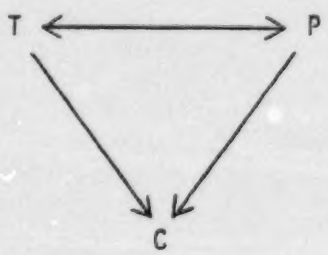
When you look up Viet Nam on the world map and draw a line from there to the U.S., it isn't surprising that to Vietnamese students, schooling in the United States is like "day and night" compared to schooling in their own country. Even for well-prepared Vietnamese students this country is too big, too rich--everything is oversized, classrooms are too open, teachers too liberal. It is my primary concern in this presentation to show the true image of a newly-arrived Vietnamese child and then let you find out the best approach you can take to help the child.

VIETNAMESE EDUCATION

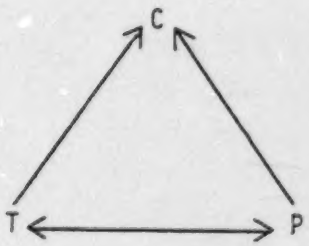
From early childhood, Vietnamese children are taught that there are three essential values in life which will influence their adulthood:

- *THE KING, who represents the Nation (later, the King was replaced by the Country itself)*
- *THE TEACHER, who is the guardian of knowledge*
- *THE FATHER, who brings you into this life.*

In the Vietnamese value system, the concept of the Teacher is given more importance than the Father, implying that Life is nothing without Knowledge, and consequently Knowledge would be nothing without a Country to serve.



In the light of this value system, what was education like in Viet Nam? Traditionally, Vietnamese think that: "He who does not know how to OBEY shall not know how to COMMAND." And because we want our children to learn how to command--at least their own lives later--our Education was centered on giving them the knowledge of Obedience. In this system of education, parents and teacher decide what is best for their children, and expect them to learn without questioning. The Vietnamese Educational System can be symbolized as an inverted triangle with the Teacher and the Father or Parent at the top and the Child at the bottom.



Vietnamese Children cannot question Parents or Teacher. They must take it for granted that parents and teachers know what is best. The American educational system is really the world upside down for these children, because what American schools want to promote the most is the child's personality. The American system of education can be symbolized as a triangle, with the Child at the top and the Parents and the Teacher at the bottom. In the United States, children are trained to stand up for their own opinions, to question parents and teachers, and to discuss their own concerns with them.

Because Vietnamese children cannot speak for themselves in the early school years, they expect much more from teachers than merely classroom teaching. They expect their teachers to give counsel throughout life, to be a good example, and to personify wisdom. Teachers are morally responsible for their students' behavior or moral attitude in society. A question very frequently asked at job interviews in Viet Nam is: "Who is your teacher?" This means that a hard-working, honest and conscientious teacher would fail a lazy, dishonest, untrustworthy student.

HOW DO VIETNAMESE CHILDREN FEEL?

Because of the difference between the two systems of education--the Vietnamese school very much centered on bending the student into an obedient attitude at home, and the U.S. school centered on developing the child's personality--Vietnamese students have a hard time adjusting to their new life in America. How do the Vietnamese children feel? They must feel very bewildered and lost because:

- *At school they are the aliens who do not speak like everybody else.*

- *At home they are strangers to their parents: they have learned another way of thinking and dare sometimes say that the parents are wrong!*

- *Outside they are not completely adopted by peers because the games being played are not attractive: they do not understand the fun in them!*

The children feel, however, that if they can overcome the language barrier, they would be happier. But here again, the traditional image of a teacher to look up to is not available. American teachers want Vietnamese children to say what they want, to choose what subjects they would like to learn.

The English language is so different from Vietnamese. The structure is completely illogical to them: a verb can be transitive or intransitive (i.e., to give, to take, etc.); the same word can be both adjective and adverb (i.e., very, well, etc.); the same letter in the alphabet is said differently according to its position in a word (i.e., trade and traditional, mind and mineral, etc.).

In addition to the language problem, if a student is 15 years old, he or she must enroll in Grade 9 or 10 without any consideration being given to the fact that the child's schooling was discontinued for at least four years in Viet Nam. The student is expected to adjust not only to spoken and written English, but also to other subjects as complex as mathematics, chemistry, social sciences, geography, etc.

HOW DO VIETNAMESE STUDENTS REACT?

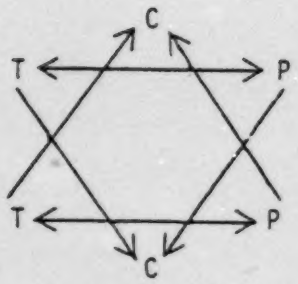
There are various ways that Vietnamese students will react to these pressures. Probably they will drop out of school and learn in the street what the school cannot teach. Or they may attempt to hang on, while sustaining deep frustrations that cause a degree of mental unbalance. Vietnamese students who succeed were generally among the first shifts of

evacuees who came right after the fall of South Vietnam in May 1975. When they arrived in the U.S. they were just in time to start a new school year. There were also quite a few who had studied English as a Foreign Language at home or whose parents had been educated overseas. Moreover, the students, who were only a small number at that time, were assigned, good, comprehensive teachers who appreciated their working qualities, their politeness, and their eagerness to learn.

CULTURAL DIFFERENCES TO REMEMBER

There are still some cultural differences that should be taken into account when teaching Vietnamese children:

- *Passivity. Vietnamese children are not used to being expected to give their own opinion. They expect to be told what to do.*
- *They take for granted that the teacher is always right. Moreover, they do not want to question the teacher even when they don't understand in class. They would rather ask their friends.*
- *Do not underestimate their passivity. The students are recording all that happens around them and will react in a way that would be very surprising to you.*
- *But do not force their participation either. Give them time to adjust; then you won't have to stop them because they have gone too far.*
- *Do not try to teach them your new concept of education by jeopardizing their own traditional values. Instead, if you simply make them realize that in their new life they have to make decisions by themselves most of the time, and only they are responsible for their own lives, the children will be grateful to you and will not feel so lonesome.*
- *Vietnamese parents are not familiar with PTA activities and consultations. Most of the time they expect the teacher or the counselor to tell them what is best for their children. Some children don't want parents who do not speak English to attend PTA meetings, because they feel sorry for their parents.*



As a conclusion, Vietnamese students, if given the right kind of help in schools, will be happy kids growing into good citizens. They will more than appreciate the new life they have found here and will know how to cherish and defend their new homeland. A very nice star can be made when the two systems of education--U.S. and Vietnamese--are put together.

IV. CONFERENCE EVALUATION

In order to evaluate the conference, a Participant Questionnaire was distributed after the final presentation. Sixteen questions were asked, four of them open-ended, and the rest forced-choice. The questions provided information about participant profiles and conference effectiveness and usefulness. The Participant Questionnaire is reproduced on the next page. An analysis of responses to each question follows.

Out of the fifteen participants, fourteen Questionnaires were returned. In examining the data, responses were grouped according to LEA, SEA, and other. This was done in order to see if the three groups perceived the conference in different ways or expressed different needs. In some cases different patterns of response were noted. In trying to establish trends, however, the small number of participants must be taken into consideration.

A follow-up evaluation of the conference will be conducted six weeks following the conference, and the results will be reported in the appropriate bimonthly report of the SEDL/RX.

R&D SPEAKS IN BILINGUAL/MULTICULTURAL EDUCATION

Participant Questionnaire

1. I represent my ___ SEA ___IEA ___ LEA.

2. ☐ I am responsible for direct training of teachers.
   ☐ I am responsible for training those who train teachers.
   ☐ Other: _____

3. This conference will assist me in the following ways:

   ☐ in conducting inservice
   ☐ in hiring consultants
   ☐ Other (please describe)
   ☐ in evaluating materials
   ☐ in training others to conduct inservice

   _____

   _____

Please indicate the extent to which you agree with the following statements by circling the appropriate response. (SA=strongly agree, A=agree, N=neutral, D=disagree, SD=strongly disagree)

4. The conference was well organized.	SA	A	N	D	SD
5. The information presented at the conference was useful.	SA	A	N	D	SD
6. I would like a follow-up conference in my state.	SA	A	N	D	SD
7. The resource people were knowledgeable and presented useful information.	SA	A	N	D	SD
8. The Bilingual Education session was useful.	SA	A	N	D	SD
9. The Follow Through Program Model session was useful.	SA	A	N	D	SD
10. The Culture in the Classroom session was useful.	SA	A	N	D	SD
11. The Unlearning Indian Stereotypes session was useful.	SA	A	N	D	SD
12. The Viet Namese Children in U.S. Classrooms session was useful.	SA	A	N	D	SD

13. What points developed in the conference are most important to you in fulfilling your job responsibilities? Please list them.

_____ _____

_____ _____

_____ _____

14. As a result of the conference I will: _____

_____

_____

15. Was there a topic area that should have been addressed and was not?

_____

_____

16. Additional comments._____

_____

_____

_____

QUESTIONS AND RESPONSES

QUESTION 1: *I represent my ___ SEA ___ IEA ___ LEA.*

&

QUESTION 2: *I am responsible for direct training of teachers, for training those who train teachers, or other.*

Eight participants represented SEAs; four represented LEAs; one was from a resettlement program, and the other from a training resources center (TRC). Of the eight SEA respondents, one trains both trainers and teachers and four train trainers only. Three indicated that they work with Title VII programs, in various capacities ranging from technical assistance to supervision. In the "Other" category, SEA respondents mentioned policy and administrative procedures and "monitoring for approval teacher's work."

Of the four LEA representatives, one trains trainers only, one trains teachers only, one does both, and one is involved in research and development only. The TRC representative trains teachers and provides technical assistance, research and evaluation. The representative from the resettlement program did not indicate training duties. See Table 1, Participant Profiles.

TABLE 1

PARTICIPANT PROFILES

SEA/LEA other	train teachers	train trainers	other
SEA			provide technical assistance to Title VII programs and monitor them
SEA			coordinate Title VII projects and helping all other LEAs with LEP students
SEA			general administration and supervision of Title VII programs
SEA		x	policy and administrative procedures
SEA		x	
SEA		x	monitor for approval teacher's work
SEA		x	
SEA	x	x	
LEA		x	
LEA			research and development
LEA	x	x	
LEA	x		
Resettlement Program			
Training resources center	x x		technical assistance, research and evaluation

QUESTION 3: *This conference will assist me in the following ways: in conducting inservice, in hiring consultants, in evaluating materials, in training others to conduct inservice, and other.*

Seven of the eight SEA representatives reported that the conference would assist them in conducting inservice, five in evaluating materials; four in hiring consultants; and four in training others to conduct inservice. Proposal writing and research findings were mentioned in the "Other" category. Of the four LEA representatives, one marked every option, while most marked only one or two: conducting inservice and training others were marked three times; hiring consultants two times; and evaluating materials once. In the "Other" category, awareness of research findings and information dissemination were mentioned. Table 2 presents the details.

TABLE 2

WAYS CONFERENCE WILL ASSIST PARTICIPANTS

Representative	Conducting Inservice	Evaluating Materials	Hiring Consultants	Training Others	Other
SEA	x	x			
SEA	x		x		
SEA	x	x			
SEA			x	x	
SEA	x			x	
SEA	x	x		x	
SEA	x	x	x		
SEA	x	x	x	x	understanding in giving assistance in proposal writing; adding to research knowledge
TOTAL SEAs	7	5	4	4	
LEA	x				
LEA			x	x	
LEA	x			x	
LEA	x	x	x	x	
TOTAL LEAs	3	1	2	3	
Ressettlement Program		x			
TRC	x				awareness of research findings and information dissemination
TOTAL OTHER	1	1			

QUESTIONS 4-12: *Please indicate the extent to which you agree with the following statements by circling the appropriate response:*

The Conference was well-organized.
The information presented at the conference was useful.
I would like a follow-up conference in my state.
The resource people were knowledgeable and presented useful information.
The Bilingual Education session was useful.
The Follow Through Program Model session was useful.
The Culture in the Classroom session was useful.
The Unlearning Indian Stereotypes session was useful.
The Viet Namese Children in U.S. Classrooms session was useful.

In this series of forced-choice questions based on a five-point rating scale, participants were asked to indicate if they SA=strongly agree, A=agree, N=neutral, D=disagree, or SD=strongly agree. LEA and 'Other" participants were unanimously positive in their responses to each statement. SEA participants, on the other hand, were not. Three out of the eight SEAs responded for the most part with "neutral" or "disagree" to each of the statements. The other SEA responses were mixed. Overall, the lowest-ranked presentation was the one on Indian stereotypes; highest-ranked was Vietnamese children. Nine of the fourteen respondants indicated that they would like to have a follow-up conference in their state. Table 3 divides the responses into the three participant categories and gives totals for each kind of response.

TABLE 3

RESPONSES TO FIVE-POINT RATING SCALE QUESTIONS

	General Statements					Useful Presentations					
	Well Org.	Useful Info.	FUP Conf.	Resource People	TOTAL	Bil. Ed.	FT	Culture in Class	Indian Steros.	Viet-namese	TOTAL
SEAs											
SA	1	2	1	2	6	1	2	3	2	5	13
A	7	5	2	4*	18	4	3	1	2	2	12
N		1	1	2	4	2	2	3	1	1	9
D			3		3	1	2	1	3		6
SD					-						-
no response			1		1						-
LEAs											
SA	1			2	3	2		1	1	3	7
A	3	4	4	2	13	2	4	3	3	1	13
N					-						-
D					-						-
SD					-						-
no response					-						-
Other											
SA	2	2	2	2	8				1		2
A					-	1	2	2	1	1	7
N					-						-
D					-					1	1
SD					-						-
no response					-						-

*one response qualified with "most of them."

QUESTION 13: *What points developed in the conference are most important to you in fulfilling your job responsibilities? Please list them.*

Eleven participants responded to this open-ended question. SEA and LEA representatives were in agreement, noting the presentations on Indochinese/ Vietnamese culture, Indian stereotypes, cultural awareness, and bilingual research. The latter two were mentioned most often. Responses are quoted verbatim below.

SEAs mentioned:

- Culture
- Research to be published
- Presentations concerning culture; overview of research in bilingual education
- Resource materials; cultural awareness
- Vietnamese Talk; Unlearning Indian Stereotypes
- Research studies being conducted by SEDL; cultural awareness and understanding

LEAs mentioned:

- Multicultural education
- Understanding the feelings of cultural differences of the Indo Chinese
- Most of the points concerning language arts and bilingual education; many of the points concerning cultural consideration and bilingual education
- Cultural awareness; current research

"Other" mentioned:

- Research data/synthesis
- Bilingual & International Education Language Arts, Implementation & Effects

QUESTION 14: *As a result of this conference I will . . . .*

Eleven participants responded to this open-ended question. Mentioned were workshops in their states, inservice training, and sharing awareness with others. Some of the responses were specific actions; others were changes in attitude or increased information.

SEAs mentioned:

- Arrange for a statewide workshop on culture in Oklahoma for teachers working with bilingual students
- Disseminate information
- Have a better understanding of Indian and Vietnamese children; have a better idea of what research is available on bilingual education
- Probably bring one of the consultants, Ms. Maggie Rivas to Oklahoma
- Use and share information with school districts I work with
- Have a better background for assisting with proposal writing; support a cultural awareness workshop in my state

LEAs noted:

- Use some of the materials and ideas in our multicultural inservice programs
- Be able to return to my state and conduct awareness and training programs at the state level
- Be able to better perform those duties that are related to my position.

Other noted:

- Be much more aware of SEDL activities and goals and how SEDL can be of benefit to its constituency
- Try to implement Bilingual Education for Vietnamese children in Texas

QUESTION 15: *Was there a topic area that should have been addressed and was not?*

Seven participants responded to this open-ended question. Responses are repeated verbatim below.

SEAs mentioned:

- Some new information on research
- Perhaps a speaker who was a monolingual (English-speaking) teacher of bilingual students to get a different perspective
- Topics were satisfactory

LEAs mentioned:

- More specific information on classroom activities and ways to give teachers multicultural information
- Sources for funding and program information
- ESL and its role in bilingual education

"Other" mentioned:

- How can research efforts be standardized and coordinated

QUESTION 16: *Additional Comments*

Finally, participants were given space to make additional comments about the conference. Six participants responded. Each response is represented verbatim below.

SEAs mentioned:

- An excellent workshop
- The first day of the meeting had a very low complexity level for the group represented. As to topic areas that could have been addressed--These could include a multitude of areas but the topics addressed were satisfactory. The content in some presentations was lacking.
- What was the purpose for defining culture if our definitions were not going to be used. What about the two values written? These should have been discussed. Perhaps. we would have been <u>at</u> the understanding level of other cultures.
- Speakers should attend the entire conference so that they are aware of the development of attitudes and skills of participants. "Level of skills (concerns)" of participants should have been ascertained for planning of the conference. The participants were more sophisticated than they were given credit for. The research paper should have been sent to participants prior to the conference so there could have been more meaningful discussion. The speaker on Indians was too belligerant and biased which is ok, but if this view was presented then a conservative view should be prepared also. Not all Native Americans are of her opinions. (Filmstrip) Wouldn't it be better to foster positive attitudes in children? Bich-Chi was excellent--a beautiful and thoughtful person--a true scholar!

LEAs mentioned:

- Good conference!
- Enjoyed the conference; I thought that it dealt with a variety of topics that will be useful to me. Well organized!

APPENDIX

MATERIALS ON DISPLAY

Materials on Display

"R&D SPEAKS IN BILINGUAL/MULTICULTURAL EDUCATION"
November 12-13, 1979

Southwest Educational Development Laboratory
211 East Seventh Street
Austin, Texas 78701
(512) 476-6861

Abrahams, Roger D. and Rudolph C. Troike. Language and Cultural Diversity in American Education. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, 1972.

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